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by

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for

A Method for Predicting the Therapeutic Outcome of A Treatment for an Affective Disorder

A Method for Predicting the Therapeutic Outcome of A Treatment for an
Affective Disorder

This application claims the benefit of U.S. Provisional Application S.N.
5   60/041,287 filed on March 20, 1997, the disclosure of which is
incorporated herein by reference.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION

10   A method for facilitating the selection of a treatment regime and for
monitoring the outcome of a particular treatment regime on a disease based
upon the expected outcome is provided. The treatment is selected from a
group of possible treatments based upon the pre-treatment diagnostic data
where more than one treatment regime could be selected. The method finds
15   utility, for example, in the treatment and monitoring of disease states
wherein the symptoms of the disease can result from more than one
physiological condition.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

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        While the method of the instant invention is useful for the treatment
selection for more than one type of disorder which is diagnosed and treated
based upon the symptoms, for simplicity, the treatment selection for a
disorder wherein the diagnosis is made by a physician based upon somatic
25   symptoms such as for example depression and especially unipolar
depression, will be discussed herein.
        Recent studies suggest that in the United States about 6-10% of the
population exhibit varying symptoms of depression which costs society
billions of dollars annually.   Depression is an affective mental health
30   disorder which is diagnosed based upon descriptive criteria or somatic
symptoms which are set forth in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of
Mental Disorders (DSM-IV) (APA, 1994). The severity of the disorder is
diagnosed using the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) (Hamilton,
1960) which is a clinical instrument devised by Hamilton which assesses
35   the severity of the symptoms of the disorder. The instrument evaluates

twenty-one psychological, physical, and performance deficits. Many
different malfunctions may give rise to the same set of somatic symptoms
and the physiological basis for these malfunctions is not thoroughly
understood. Thus, it is difficult to determine the correct treatment regime
for a patient.

In clinical research studies which are performed to assess the effect
of a treatment, pre-treatment or baseline scores and post-treatment scores
are typically compared. Several prior research efforts focused on the
recovery pattern of depression symptoms as assessed using .

In 1984, Quitkin (Quitkin:84) analyzed the patterns of general
improvement in depressed patients in response to treatment with drug
therapy. He compared four antidepressant drug treatments with a placebo
(N=318). The results showed that a "true drug response" was indicated by
a pattern of delayed and persistent improvement. The delay was up to 4
weeks, but once improvement started it continued. These results were
replicated by Quitkin et al. in 1987 (Quitkin:87). They used a
measurement of overall general improvement in the patient's condition
(CGI: Clinical Global Impression scale).

Katz et al. (1987) (Katz:87} found that specific changes in
symptoms after one week of treatment were predictors of response to
imipramine and amitriptyline treatments in bipolar and unipolar
patients (N=104). As the symptom measure, they used ``state
constructs,'' which included HDRS as one of its measurements.
According to their analysis (analysis of covariance), these
measurements indicated week-one predictive symptoms to be a reduction
in disturbed affects (distressed expression and anxiety $(p < 0.001)$;
depressed mood, hostility and agitation $(p < 0.01)$); and cognitive
functioning (cognitive impairment $(p < 0.01)$). Retardation drops
only after these symptoms drop. Sleep disorder drops non-differentially
from an early stage for responders and non-responders. These symptoms
were the ones that dropped early and were predictive of the outcome.
Sleep disorder dropped early too, but was not predictive of the outcome

because it dropped both in responders and non-responders. Retardation dropped later in responders.

5

The advantages of time series analysis were illustrated by Hull et al. {Hull:93} in documenting the treatment effects of fluoxetine in a 58 week in-patient trial. The data analyzed were from a self-report symptom scale obtained for a single patient (N=1). Forty weeks of pre-treatment data were available for the analysis. The amount of data obtained was sufficient for time series (intervention analysis) of the time course of depression symptoms. The data before intervention was best fit by the

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model identified as (AR, I, MA) = (0, 1, 1). This is a first order moving average model that operates on the first degree differential of the time series data. Eight ``dummy" variables corresponding to the intervention were then introduced. Each was a step function that changed from zero to one at week$i$ after intervention (i = 0, 1, ..., 7). Most

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symptom scores dropped significantly during the second week. The most noticeable was depression (p < 0.001). Some symptom scores showed additional drops by the fourth week. Psychoticism, characterized by delusions or hallucinations was an exception, in that its primary response occurred during the first week.

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Recently, a method of diagnosing or confirming a diagnosis of depression has been developed by Goldstein et. Al. (U.S. Patent No. 5,591,588; Goldstein et. al.; the disclosure of which is incorporated herein by reference). Based upon laboratory determined blood values of the neurohormone arginine vasopressin and on the thymic hormone thymopoietin

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taken from blood samples obtained in the afternoon from patients and using a logistic regression model which was confirmed using a linear discrimination analysis, this diagnostic criterion was found to be accurate in 81% of the patients who were diagnosed as depressed using Hamilton Depression Rating Scale.

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The above described methods are useful for characterizing and diagnosing an affective disorder. However, assignment of a treatment based upon the diagnosis and characterization of the disorder is not achieved by these methods. Further, once a treatment is assigned to a patient based upon the currently used methods, no treatment specific recovery pattern is

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available to monitor the progress achieved by the patient at various time

points of treatment in between pre- and post-treatment assessment.

The time resolution of the measurements is course. Data is collected weekly at best. Frequently data points are missing. Further, patient data gathered is rated on a five point scale and is qualitatively assessed. The

5   population studied may not be representative of the entire range of the disorder; it may not be normally distributed in a statistical sense. In particular, the patient's progress is not compared with the pattern of recovery shown by patients who have received similar treatment regimes and who have been determined to be "recovered" based on HDSR with respect

10   to the time course of the disappearance of symptoms.

Several treatment regimes have proven effective in treating depression when pre- and post-treatment are compared, but the response to the various treatments is highly variable. Within a group of patients all assessed to have the same HDSR, response to the same treatment is highly

15   variable. Some people respond in the expected manner, while others do not. Further variability is added in that some patients response in the same manner to different treatments. These treatments include psychotherapy, such as for example cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) and/or drug treatment, such as for example with a tricyclic anti-depressant drug (TCA)

20   such as for example despiramine (DM) or such as for example with a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, such as for example, fluoxetine (FLU). Each treatment has proven successful with a certain subset of patients exhibiting somatic symptoms of depression derived from the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale. However, identification of members of a

25   subset prior to the onset of treatment is difficult. Thus, optimal treatment selection is difficult for any given individual.

Currently, once a patient is diagnosed as having the disorder, depression, and the severity of the disorder is assessed using the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS), a single total score is obtained based upon

30   a series of somatic indicators. Using the HDRS score, the doctor selects one treatment regime from among several possible treatment regimes. The choice of treatment has been based on the absence of undesirable side effects and on the training background of the clinician rather than on the knowledge of the potential efficacy of the treatment regime for the patient.

35   Trial and error methods of treatment assignment have proven to have

limited success. Previous attempts at using statistical techniques to predict the outcome of treatment for depression have also proven to be weak indicators. A model with predictive value is needed to facilitate successful selection of a treatment regime for a patient exhibiting

5   symptoms with varying severity associated with depression.

Once the patient starts treatment, monitoring of the recovery process is performed qualitatively by the physician's assessment of the patient's rate of recovery. This assessment is based upon the physician's previous experience of recovery patterns from other individual patients. However,

10   this experience is limited. What is needed is a method for monitoring the patient's recovery with time that would allow early detection of deviation from an expected recovery path where the recovery path is derived from a larger population sample. This would provide the physician with a more accurate predictor of the outcome of treatment. By comparing the

15   individual's response to a representative response which resulted in recovery, the physician would be provided with a more rapid way to re-evaluate the treatment, and if needed, would allow the physician to alter the treatment regime, thus facilitating patient recovery.

However, patient recovery is very idiosyncratic and highly variable.

20   Thus, establishing predictive patterns of recovery has been thought to be unfeasible. Further, the pattern of recovery of any individual patient is thought to be too unique. Therefore, the usefulness of comparing any individual's recovery pattern with a predicted recovery pattern has been considered to have very limited usefulness. What is needed is a model

25   which allows for variability while providing predictive value.

Due to the variability of the data and confounded by the iodiosyncratic response of patients to the assigned treatment, analysis of the data in order to assign treatment and predict the outcome to that treatment, much less monitor the patient's progress in response to the treatment so that early

30   intervention and alteration of treatment can be achieved has proven difficult. What is needed is a system to analyze the data which provides the physician with a method to predict and monitor outcome of treatment.

It is an object of the instant invention to provide a method for standardizing the assignment of a treatment for a disorder, such as for

35   example, depression.

It is a further object of the instant invention to provide a method for monitoring the effectiveness of an assigned treatment for a disorder which is diagnosed and monitored based upon symptoms assessed at various time intervals.

5   It is an additional object of the instant invention to facilitating more timely intervention by the physician with respect to treatment choice when treatment is not progressing as expected.

SUMMARY

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The invention relates to a method useful for facilitating choosing a treatment or treatment regime and for predicting the outcome of a treatment for a disorder which is diagnosed and monitored by a physician or other appropriately trained and licensed professional, such as for example, a
15   psychologist, based upon the symptoms experienced by a patient. Unipolar depression is an example of such a disorder, however the model may find use with other disorders and conditions wherein the patient response to treatment is variable.

Further, the method provides a modeling system for generating the
20   expected recovery pattern of a patient receiving a particular treatment which is useful for comparison with the actual recovery pattern of the patient to provide for monitoring of the patient's response. The expected recovery pattern is particularly one that has been generated by the recovery model of the instant invention. When the patient's response does not
25   correspond to the predicted recovery pattern, the treatment regime can be re-evaluated.

The preferred recovery model is a non-linear, second order neural network model for analyzing data to generate expected outcomes from a plurality of individual patterns of response. A data system which
30   integrates individual responses, and through analysis by the model, provides a generalized expected pattern of outcome in response to the treatment when a particular pattern of symptoms is exhibited is also provided.

A processing unit that weights the inputted patient data is provided. The weight depends upon the strength of the effect. At each point in time
35   each unit of data has an activation value. The activation value is passed

through a function to produce an output.

Each patient's recovery pattern is represented as a second order differential equation. The recovery pattern characteristics are represented by three parameters: latency (change with time) or when patient response

5   begins within a six week treatment regime; interaction effects or how each of seven symptoms influence each other; and treatment effects or how each treatment effects each symptom. Symptoms are simplified for analysis and include parameters early sleep; middle and late sleep; energy; work; mood; cognitions; and anxiety. Responders are defined as those patients who

10   exhibit an improvement of greater than 50% during the treatment period.

The recovery model takes into account latency, treatment effects, and the interaction of the treatment effects. Time to response is also modeled. The model is trained to optimize the parameter values. The model output which is based upon the estimated parameters and the pretreatment

15   symptoms, is compared to the desired patient data over a six week period of time on a day by day basis. The parameter estimates are adjusted so that the difference between the model output and the patient data decreases. This process is repeated until the parameters are optimized and thereby yield a model and output that best fit the patient data.

20   The model can gain additional accuracy and precision through entry of additional patient data which is integrated into the model. Increased precision can be achieved by collecting patient data on a continuous basis from clinical studies and from physicians and psychologists, inputting the data, and updating the model. Thus, in an aspect of the invention, a method

25   is provided for integrating data to provide treatment patterns that have greater predictive value than that typically available to an individual physician.

Further, a method is provided for comparing individual patient response to a predicted outcome, thereby allowing the physician the ability

30   to monitor the patient's response with time and to assess whether or not the treatment is resulting in the expected improvement in the disorder. When the expected improvement is not observed, the physician then can intervene and alter the treatment.

Additionally, the invention provides a method for inputting data from

35   patients, integrating that data into a data system to modify the expected

recovery pattern for a particular symptom set and for a particular treatment or treatment regime and thereby provide a predictive pattern of recovery for individual patterns of symptoms and responses to treatment that has greater predictive value.

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BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Figure 1a illustrates flow chart for a prototypical symptom profiler.
Figure 1b illustrates a flow chart system architecture for Phase I.
10   Figure 1c illustrates a flow chart for a patient data processing unit.
Figure 2 illustrates a flow chart for a depression disorder integrated model
Figure 3-2 illustrates a flow chart for a training cycle for training a model on actual patient data.
Figure 3-3 illustrates an overview of a recovery model and the parameters
15   used therein.
Figure 3-4 illustrates the annotated second order differential equation used to model the pattern of recovery.
Figure 3-5 illustrates latency modeling.
Figure 3-6 illustrates direct effects and interactions of the recovery model.
20   Figure 3-7 provides an over view of the training process.
Figure 3-8 provides a schematic description of an equation useful for training the model.
Figure 3-9 illustrates predicted patterns of recovery vs. actual patterns of recovery based upon two different modeling systems.
25   Figure 3-10 illustrates individual patterns of recovery for four patients, wherein patients a and patient b receive CBT and patients c and d receive DMI.
Figure 3-11 illustrates predicted and actual patterns of patient data based upon the mean values.
30   Figure 3-12 illustrates mean half reduction time based upon the model's predicted values of latency for individual symptom factors.
Figure 3-13 graphical illustrates the predicted CBT and DMI temporal response sequence of symptom improvement in patients diagnosed as having depression.
35   Figure 3-14 illustrates a comparison of the model's predicted immediate

and delayed direct effects of treatment on symptoms for CBT and DMI treatment.

Figure 3-15 graphically illustrates a representation of the sequence of symptom factors in recovery with CBT treatment for the second order model
5   system.

Figure 3-16 graphically illustrates a representation of the sequence of symptom factors in recovery with DMI treatment for the second order model system.

Figure 3-17 graphically illustrates a sequence and causal relationship
10   among patterns of recovery.

Figure 4-1 graphically illustrates nonlinear mapping of backpropagation.

Figure 4-2 provides a schematic representation of the effect of normalizing transformations on reducing nonlinearity of score-to-output relationships.

15   DESCRIPTION OF THE BEST MODE OF THE INVENTION

        Factors for analysis of recovery patterns were selected from the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) . Three types of factors, physical, performance and psychological, were included. Generally described these
20   factors include: early sleep; middle and late sleep; energy; work performance; mood; cogitions; and anxiety. General methods used for statistical tests for verification of the modeling efforts as modified for use with a neural net model which correct for over-fitting are described by Luciano (Luciano; U.S. Provisional Patent Application S.N. 60/041,287, filed
25   March 21, 1997). Also described therein are time series prediction verification methods to validate and result results obtained and outcome prediction verification methods.

        Referring now to Figure 1a and 1b, a symptom profiler developer and a system architecture for Phase I, (idealized profile development),
30   respectively are illustrated. Figure 1a provides an overview of the development of the symptom profiler. A prototypical system is developed to provide expected or so-called idealized profiles or patterns of symptoms over time in response to a selected treatment regime. These patterns are based upon actual clinical data derived from individual patient responses to
35   a selected treatment. Clinical data are input from multiple sources. The

data are pre-processed and undergo statistical tests as is illustrated in Figure 1c, some tests are standard and some are modified according to the methods described in detail below. The data are processed until the profiles are optimized on the data available at that time to create a trained

5   symptom profiler. Completion of the training process of the system is then assessed based upon optimization of the preprocessed steps. In Figure 1 b, an overview of how the system can be used and modified to further optimize the system for providing treatment recommendations and predicted responses is presented. The trained system profiler contains a database of

10   predicted responses. A user, such as for example a physician, enters patient data, such as for example via a computer, to the trained symptom profiler and receives a treatment recommendation and a profile of predicted responses to that treatment. Access to the trained symptom profiler optionally is through the Internet. Further, individual patient data and data

15   from clinical studies may be input to the symptom profiler for on-going training of the symptom profiler.

      Referring now to Figure 2, a flow chart of a depression disorder integrated model (DDIM) is illustrated. After depression has been broadly diagnosed using DSM-IV, data are gathered from the patient using an

20   instrument based upon the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale which is described below. During the treatment selection phase, these data are entered into the Outcome Predictor which provides a database of predicted outcomes in response to multiple treatments by comparing the patient's data to predicted outcomes based upon the information in the trained

25   Outcome Predictor. The physician uses this information to choose the treatment most likely to produce the desired results, i.e. improvement in symptoms of depression. The physician monitors the patient's response to treatment and compares that response to a predicted response generated by the trained Pattern Predictor. When the patient's respond deviates from the

30   expected response, the physician may alter the treatment regime assigned to the patient being treated.

      How the symptoms of depression as assessed by the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) change over time in response to treatment was studied to provide detailed patterns of recovery over time. A series of

35   analyses of two groups of patients who responded to a particular treatment

regime was performed. One group of six patients responded to treatment with desipramine (DMI), an antidepressant drug medication, and the other group of six patients responded to treatment with cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT),   a psychotherapy treatment. The detailed patterns of

5   recovery in each of these patient groups were studied and   modeled using systems of ordinary differential equations. This method revealed new information about how the symptom response patterns differ across treatments.

A direct approach to fitting more than one patients' recovery data over

10   time has not been previously attempted. The problems which must be overcome are the high level of noise and the inter-subject variation in recovery.   Also lacking is a detailed model which uses the subjects initial data as a   starting point. The instant invention describes a differential equation model which partially deals with this problem. Another problem

15   has to do with the large amount of variance that remains after the best fitting model is constructed. Some of this variability is unavoidable and is due to defects in the measuring instrument. The model is shown to capture a significant part of the variance of the subjects data.

The statistical reliability of the model's predictions over the two

20   patient groups in recovery is demonstrated. From this model which is based upon a database comprised of data points gathered from assessment of individual patients over time, clear predictions as to the timing of recovery within and between treatments can be made which can be further validated and extended by additional research data inputted into the database.

25   To understand and explain, rather than just describe how treatments affect recovery as has been done, more detail about the
pattern of recovery than previously described was sought.   This meant to build upon   the   pattern of   drug response that   Quitkin   et. al.
(Quitkin 1984;1993) described by following specific symptoms   over

30   time rather than a single indicator of global improvement. It also sought to connect the snapshots described by   Katz (Katz:87) and show how they relate to outcome. To do this, a sample of patients who responded to treatment was selected, and then a set of   quantitative rules which describe the evolution of symptoms during recovery was estimated.   Thus

35   the resultant model is able to predict the detailed pattern of recovery

from the pre-treatment symptoms. The fit of the model to the data is described in Section Qualitative Reasons for Choice of Second Order System. This work also extended the work of Hull et al. (Hull, 1993) in that we had a larger sample of patients. In Hull, each symptom was modeled

5 independently as an ARIMA process, not allowing for interactions among symptoms. We allowed for interactions of symptoms, which enabled a more detailed analysis of the recovery sequence.

METHODS

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Models of Patient Group Response Over Time

Much of individual pattern of recovery appears predictable from the subjects initial data even though there is considerable idiosyncratic variation from subject to subject. In order to capture the maximum

15 amount of individual variation within a treatment group as possible, and to compare the differing responses across groups, the problem was defined: Are there any differences in how symptoms improve in depressed patients who respond to cognitive behavioral therapy vs. Those who respond to desipramine? The approach taken was to recast the problem as a dynamic

20 system. Recovery patterns for patients were modeled using differential equations, wherein the differential equation parameters were specific to a treatment group. A comparison of the features of recovery patterns was made to examine latency of response to treatment. A determination of which symptoms were the first to respond to treatment was made. Further,

25 whether or not the symptoms affect each other was evaluated. Then, statistical analysis was applied to determine the significant differences in the model predicted recovery pattern features found in the different treatment groups.

To accomplished this, an architecture or network of connections

30 among variables corresponding to symptoms and the treatment input was constructed. Then two separate types of models of this architecture, namely a shunting model and a second-order model, so named because of the kind of differential equations that define the model, were constructed. Then, for each of these two types of models, the data were used to

35 estimate a different set of parameters for each treatment group,

DMI and CBT. Thus, parameters were estimated for four separate models (two treatment groups by two model types). The parameters were estimated iteratively by cycling through the individual data within the treatment group as shown in Figure 1 which describes the training

5   cycle for each treatment group. Referring to Figure 1, for each of the two different models, the same architecture but different separate parameter sets were provided. Each model was trained by cycling through individual data within the respective treatment group. After each cycle, the cost function which reflects the degree of fit of the model predictions to the

10   actual data was evaluated to determine the completion of training. Finally, we analyzed the parameters and behavior of the trained models when initialized with individual patient's baseline data values. In this way, the reliability of the predicted behavior within and across treatment groups was quantified..

15   Each model was fit to the seven constructed symptom factors derived from the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale. Three primary characteristics of the response pattern were studied: (1) direct effects (from treatment to symptoms);(2) interaction effects (between pairs of symptoms, which are indirect because they are not directly caused by

20   the treatment); and (3)latency, which is the average time that elapses, from the start of the treatment to a 50 percent improvement in the symptoms.

           Each model was designed so that its output could be easily related to the evolving symptom factor values. To accomplish this, the network

25   architecture was specified to have one variable for each of the seven symptom factors under study. The direct effects of treatment and the interactions among symptoms were represented as modifiable connections from treatment to symptom factor variables and between the symptom factor variables. In addition to the above, a latency variable was

30   introduced to represent varying symptom response time (the time it takes for symptoms to respond to treatment).

           Differential equations were used to describe the dynamics of the model. Two systems of differential equations were studied. One was a second order linear system, the other was a shunting system

35   (Grossberg:82c), based on a first order non-linear differential equations.

After the architecture for the model was constructed, parameters were estimated using the learning algorithm described in Section Training Procedure which was adopted from optimal control theory. The optimized models are compared for goodness of fit. The parametric
5   differences in latency, treatment effects (both immediate and delayed), and interactions between symptoms are discussed.

Patient Data
Weekly patient data were linearly interpolated to yield daily data for
10 training. Data were converted to z-scores as follows according to Equation 1.

$$O_i = \frac{(O'_i - \bar{O}')}{\sigma(O')}$$ (3.1)

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where O_i 's are daily training data, *sigma* is the
standard deviation, O is the overall sample mean and *sigma*
20 is the overall sample variance. The difference from each day to the next day was used as the training data for the first derivative of each day. For the last day, the first derivative was assumed to be the same as that of the previous day.
Based on the premise that the symptoms are at equilibrium before
25 the onset of treatment, seven days of data were added before the beginning of treatment. The training data for these added data (week -1 to week 0), were set to the pre-treatment (baseline) values. For this period, training data for derivatives were set to zero.
Data from five weeks were used in the calculation of the F statistics
30 because the first week was used as the initial value.
In addition to linear interpolation, splining by third order polynomial was also considered. It was not adopted because it tended to create artifacts that manifested as large curvatures around endpoints that potentially would distort the fit.
35

Assumptions of the Model Design

Several assumptions were made to highlight behavioral aspects of the effect of   different treatments on and among the symptoms of depression. These assumptions apply to both   the first and second
5   order models.

Treatment Effect

The first assumption was that treatments act directly on symptoms, possibly by affecting neuromodulatory pathways acting on brain
10   regions that control the behavior manifested in the symptom. In both models, this effect corresponds to the direct effect weights, i.e. the strengths of the response in the pathway from symptoms to treatment. Other possible   causes, such   as spontaneous recovery,   sporadic fluctuations of symptoms, life events, and anticipatory anxiety about
15   treatment   termination, were not considered. Note that   for both models, the   symptoms tended to converge to baseline levels which represented   pre-treatment symptom scores rather than non-depressed normal levels in the   absence of treatment.   Spontaneous recovery, i.e., recovery that may   be due to lifestyle changes,   supportive
20   environment, or other   uncontrolled life events were not considered for this model.

Latency

The second assumption was that there are two components of the
25   direct treatment effect described above. One component acts directly on the symptoms, referred to as immediate and the other reflects underlying processes that cause a delay in the response, referred to as delayed or latent.   Latency was included in the model because it has been observed in antidepressant drug response
30   {Quitkin:84,Quitkin:87} and was an open question for CBT response. Latency is modeled by a parameter of the transfer function of an idealized node. This node transforms elapsed time (linear) into an overall latent effect (nonlinear). The latency is assumed to be the same across all factors. The latency determines the time when the
35   level of input (which linearly increases with the treatment duration)

which results in half of the maximum possible output.

Interactions
        The third assumption was that symptoms affect other symptoms,
5 possibly through   interconnections among   regions such as
transcortical connections, and through environmental   and metabolic
feedback in response to the behavioral changes.   This effect is modeled by
the coefficients (weights) of the links among symptom nodes.

10 Network Architecture
        An overview of the architecture for both recovery models is shown in
Figure 3-3. It is independent of the treatment data and was used as the
architecture for both first and second order systems on the CBT and DMI
data. The intensity of each symptom (it's HDRS score) is represented by
15 network nodes which are shown as ellipses and are generally referenced as
300. These correspond to the activities levels of the nodes (x_i) in the
system of differential equations, which describes the behavior of
the network shown in Figure 3-4 and discussed below. Treatment direct
effects and interactions among symptom correspond to weighted
20 connections (arrows, 320) in Figure 3-3. The bi-directional arrows 310 in
Figure 3-3 represent two separate weighted connections. The overall
latency of the response to treatment corresponds to the parameter (Δt)
of the delay node transfer function (the rectangle 330 labeled Δt).
        Looking now at Figure 3-4, an annotated second order differential
25 equation used to model the pattern of recovery is illustrated. The
acceleration of symptom is equal to the summation of a stabilizing factor
times the rate of symptom change plus the summation of the interactions
between symptoms and the treatment effects, both immediate effects
which are represented by a step function and delayed effects which are
30 represented by a sigmoid function. The connection weights (coefficients in
the equations) in the architecture represent the strength of the direct
treatment intervention effects (u_i for immediate effect, v_i for latent
effect) and the strength of the interactions between pairs of symptoms (w_{ij}). As in Figure 3-3, the overall latency of the response to treatment

corresponds to the parameter (Δt) of the delay node transfer function which in turn corresponds to the delay node function $h(\partial, t - \Delta t)$ in Figure 3-4.

Treatment Effect

5   The direct effects of the treatment on the symptoms are called the treatment effects. The intensity of the effect corresponds to the value of the coefficient of the link from a treatment to a symptom factor. A direct effect is inferred for symptoms whose recovery is strongly effected by the treatment intervention.

10   In the second order model, it is assumed that the immediate direct effect of treatment, represented by a step function, correlates linearly with the acceleration (either by an increase or reduction) of factors through immediate treatment effect coefficients. It is also assumed that the latent direct effect of treatment, represented by a

15 sigmoid function of time, correlates linearly with the acceleration of the factors through the latent treatment effect coefficients.

Latency

      Referring now to Figure 3-5 modeling of latency is illustrated. The

20 direct effects of treatment are either immediate 510 (step function) or delayed 520 (sigmoid function). Delays are estimated by treatment from the patient data, using an optimization procedure.

      Clinically, latency is defined as the response time of a symptom to a treatment. For example, it is well established that antidepressant

25 drug treatments can take up to 4 weeks before the patient responds. In the recovery model, latency (Δt) is defined as the time from the beginning of treatment to when the effect of the treatment achieved half of its full accumulated effect on the symptom.

      The recovery model's direct effects can occur through two treatment

30 pathways: one with latency, and one without latency. To separate and thus capture the immediate and the delayed effects of treatment, two nodes were added and trained on the data. As shown in Figure 3-5, the pathway with latency is represented by a delay node that is a sigmoid function with two parameters: delay and steepness of

35 the onset of the delayed effect. The pathway without latency is

represented by a step function fixed to coincide with the onset of the treatment. (Note: The simulated time-course begins one week before the onset of treatment.) All parameters were estimated by a training algorithm.

5   Interactions

Symptoms may affect each other. For example, increased energy may increase productivity at work. This effect is modeled by a link from a source symptom to a target symptom as is illustrated in Figure 3-6, recovery model detail. Direct effects and interactions in the recovery

10   model wherein u_i represents the strength of the immediate effect of treatment on symptom node i, v_i represents the strength of the delayed effect of treatment on symptom i; and w_{ij} and w_{ji} represent the interaction between the symptoms: the strength of the effect of symptom i on symptom j and the strength of the effect of symptom j on symptom i,

15   respectively.

The second order model assumes that a source symptom's deviation from intensity correlates with the acceleration of target symptoms through interaction coefficients.

20   **Derived Measures**

Accumulated Interaction Strength

The calculation for the accumulated interaction strength of symptoms utilizes the fact that the symptom factors were normalized by

25   shifting and scaling the data to have mean values equal to 0.0 and variance values equal to 1.0, and that the maximum values of the step function and sigmoid function are 1.0. This measure is a rough approximation valid for the center of the range for the second order model. Measures of interactions among symptoms were derived from the

30   second order equation 3.6 by ignoring indirectly propagated influence (for instance, influence of factor j on factor i via factor k). Variables and parameters that appear in these equations are defined in Table 3.1

$$W_{ij} = -\frac{2}{T^2} \int \int w_{ij}(x_j - B_j)d^2t$$

$$\simeq -w_{ij}B_j \qquad (3.2)$$

5

$$U_i = -\frac{2}{T^2} \int \int \{w_{ii}(x_i - B_i) + u_i s(t) + v_i h(t)\}d^2t$$

$$\simeq -w_{ii}B_i - u_i - v_i(1 - \frac{\Delta t}{T})^2 \qquad (3.3)$$

where T is the entire treatment period (six weeks),
10 W_{ij} is the measure of total influence of symptom factor j on symptom factor i, when x_i is small, and U_i is the measure of total influence of the treatment intervention on the symptom factor I when x_I is small.

15 Latency of Each Factor: Half Reduction Time
To compare the patterns of response to treatments we needed to construct the temporal structure of a patient's response. This meant that we needed a way to determine when each symptom responded to treatment. Based on the optimized model's prediction of a symptom's
20 response trajectory, a measurement was made of the time it takes for the modeled symptom's intensity to decrease halfway from its initial intensity to its intensity after six weeks of treatment. This measurement is called the half reduction time (hrt). The hrt value is a prediction by the model after it has been trained
25 on patient data, initialized with the baseline symptom values of a single patient, and allowed to evolve in accordance with the parameterized differential equations.
The half reduction time (response time) of a symptom i ($hrt_i P$) for a given patient P is formally defined, when it exists, as follows:
30

$$hrt_i^P = \{k|(k \in B_i) \ \& \ \forall k'(k' \in B_i \ \rightarrow \ k \le k')\} \qquad (3.4)$$

$$B_i = \{t|(x_i(0) > x_i(T)) \ \& \ (x_i(t) \le \frac{x_i(0) + x_i(T)}{2})\} \qquad (3.5)$$

5   where $x_i (t)$ is the predicted symptom factor value of a
     patient on the t_{th} day after the beginning of treatment, and T
     is the end of the 6 weeks of treatment (thus T = 6*7 = 42). This
     represents the shortest time by which a symptom has fallen to the
     average of its beginning and final value. Predicted symptom patterns
10   that did not decrease were excluded from the calculation of the half
     reduction time mean.

     Range Score: Temporal Duration of Treatment Response
             In addition to the response time, we were interested in examining the
15   temporal duration of the response. To address this aspect of the
     recovery pattern, we constructed the range score, defined as the time
     [number of days] between the day the first symptom reaches its half
     reduction time to the day the last symptom reaches its half reduction time.
     This score is based upon the half reduction times predicted by the model.
20   For individual patient trajectories, it is possible for the model to
     predict that some symptom will simply not improve and therefore, the
     half reduction time is not defined. The model did so in four (DMI) to
     five (CBT) cases out of a total of 42 possible half reduction
     times. To fill in missing data, two approaches were considered. One
25   approach omits the patient's data for that symptom from the analysis,
     the other approach replaces the missing value with a hypothetical
     minimum or maximum depending on what occurred in the actual data of
     that patient.
             The two approaches for filling in data where the half reduction time
30   was undefined are:
     1. If the symptom was not present (and therefore could not improve)
     then use the value zero days for the half reduction time for that
     symptom.
     2. If the symptom was present, and either stayed at the same level
35   throughout the six weeks or worsened, then use the value equivalent to

the maximum possible value,   i.e. 42 days (six weeks) for the half
reduction time for that symptom.

5

10

15

20

25
The more conservative   approach, which omits the symptom from the
calculation was adopted.   This approach is more conservative because
it reduces the number of   data points available for   statistical
analyses and thus makes it harder to achieve statistical significance.
For this measure in particular, the omission of a symptom, depending
on the symptom, can have a large impact on the range score. Thus, if
the symptom is one whose mean reduction time is on one of the extremes
(either very short or very long) then its omission will shorten the
range score for that symptom and make it harder to show significant
differences in the response patterns of different treatments.

Most of the statistical tests and discussion are based on derived
measures, in particular,   the model-dependent half reduction times.
There   are two reasons for this approach. First, Tables
3.3 and 3.4 show the fits of the model to the data are highly significant.
The highly significant results suggest that the model captures aspects   of
the data and it is therefore appropriate to study the model's behavior.
Subsequent section "Use of the Predicted Half Reduction Time Derived
Measure" shows that when predicted and actual half
reduction times both are defined, they are highly correlated. Section
"Results: Statistical Inferences" is devoted to the elucidation of the
differing patterns that resulted from training on two different
treatment groups. There, the computed half reduction times were used
to quantify the results obtained from model predictions based on
individual initial conditions.

Models Considered

30   First and Second Order Systems

One of the two classes of models used in this study was a system of
linear second order differential equations. The second order model is
presented in detail because it was the model ultimately chosen. The
equations can be understood by their analogy to equations familiar from
35   kinematics. Variables x_i, x_l, and x_l can be thought of as

acceleration, velocity, and displacement, respectively. Each symptom of each patient is assigned a baseline value B_i, reflecting its pre-treatment value. A deviation of intensity of a symptom value x_i from its baseline value B_i, gives rise to two kinds of

5   forces. The restoration force, a product of the deviation and the coefficient w_{ij}, tends to return the symptom to its baseline value B_i, (and therefore is w_{ij} constrained to be negative). An interaction force, a product of the deviation and w_{ij} links the strength of the symptom to the acceleration of other symptoms and

10   thereby causes the other symptoms to covary. (The sign of coefficient indicates whether improvement in the symptom will improve or impede improvement in another covarying symptom.)

Second Order Model System

15

$$\ddot{x}_i = -A_i\dot{x}_i + \sum_{j=1}^{N}(x_j - B_j)w_{ij} + s(t)u_i + h(\alpha, t - \Delta t)v_i \qquad (3.6)$$

20

$$s(t) \;=\; \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \qquad (3.7)$$

$$h(\alpha, t - \Delta t) \;=\; \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha(t-\Delta t)}} \qquad (3.8)$$

25

30

The meaning of each term in equation 3.6 is labeled in Figure 3.4 and Table 3.1. The value of variables x_i, where $i=1,2,...,N$ and $N=7$ is the number of symptoms under study, the predicted HDRS score of symptom i. Parameters are defined as follows: A_i is a damping

coefficient which acts to slow down the rate of change of a symptom. B_i i=1,2,..., N , is the baseline (pre-treatment) value of symptom factor x_i. W_{ij} is the coefficient of the interaction from symptom j to symptom i. Treatment intervention effects are

5 represented by the outputs of two functions. The immediate effect is represented by a step function $s(t)$, with onset set to the beginning of treatment intervention. The latent effect is represented by a sigmoid function h (alpha, $t - \Delta t$), representing the delayed effects of treatment intervention. The sigmoid function uses two

10 parameters to model the delayed onset of response: (1) latency (Δt [week]) i.e. the delay and (2) steepness (alpha) the abruptness of the response onset. Though estimated from the data, latency was constrained to be the same for all factors, but the intensity of the direct treatment intervention effect to a specific symptom factor i was determined

15 independently by coefficients u_i (immediate) and v_i (latent).

Table 3.1:   Recovery model parameters.

Variable Name	Description
x_i	Activity of symptom factor i
A_i	Damping factor
B_i	Baseline (pre-treatment factor) value
w_{ij}	Interaction coefficient from factor j to factor i
u_i	Treatment Intervention (immediate) to factor i
v_i	Treatment Intervention (latent) to factor i
α	Steepness of latent onset of treatment effect
Δt	Latency [weeks] for treatment effect

30

First Order (Shunting) Model

Another model class that was explored in the current research was a first order shunting model (Grossberg, 1982) of the following form:

$$\dot{x}_i = -A_i(x_i - D_i) + (B_i - x_i)(\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_{ij}^+ x_j + u_i^+ s(t) + v_i^+ h(\alpha, t - \Delta t))$$

$$-(C_i + x_i)(\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_{ij}^- x_j + u_i^- s(t) + v_i^- h(\alpha, t - \Delta t)) \tag{3.9}$$

where A_i is a decay constant, B_i is an upper limit of a factor, C_i is a lower limit, D_i is a baseline, w_{ij}^+ is an excitatory interaction coefficient, w_{ij}^- is an inhibitory interaction coefficient, u_i^+ is an excitatory immediate direct effect coefficient, u_i^- is an inhibitory immediate direct effect coefficient, v_i^+ is an excitatory latent direct effect coefficient, and u_i^- is an inhibitory latent direct effect coefficient. α is the steepness of latent onset of treatment effect, and Δ_t is the latency for the treatment effect.

In a clinical sense, A_i corresponds to the quickness of the symptom to go to the baseline value if effects of treatments and other symptoms were removed. B_i and C_i correspond to upper and lower limits of the symptom, in the sense that when the symptom value approaches to one of these limits the change slows down. w_{ij}^+ is the interaction coefficient between symptoms when a high value of symptom j tends to coincide with an increase of i, and a low value of symptom j tends to coincide with a decrease of i. w_{ij}^- is the interaction coefficient between symptoms when the sign of correlation is the opposite. Thus, at most one of w_{ij}^+ and w_{ij}^- is non-zero for a given (i, j).

Training Procedure

The parameters which yield good fits to the data were obtained
through learning. This section describes processes and data that were
5   involved in learning. Referring now to Figure 3-7 which provides a flow
chart of the training process, parameters were initialized with regression
matrix which was calculated from actual symptom values (ASV) by
correlation and regression analyses. The model used these initial
parameters to predict symptom values (model symptom values, MSV) of
10   each patient from   baseline.   The   optimization   process   iteratively
modified parameters to minimize the discrepancy between MSV and ASV.

MSV are daily symptom factor values starting from one week prior
to the onset of treatment, whereas ASV are weekly data starting from the
onset of treatment.   Prior to the optimization process,   ASV were
15   transformed into the same format as MSV. This was done by extending
the ASV by one week (from week 0 to week -1). It was assumed that the
symptom factor values before the beginning of treatment were constant
and equal to the baseline. A linear interpolation was used to extend
the data. The extension was necessary because the model had to learn
20   from the data the premise that the symptom factor values stay constant
without treatment.   The reason the data was interpolated to be daily
rather than weekly was that the theories of differential equations and
optimal control are continuous, and thus require finer time resolution
than was available in weekly data from a six week study.
25   The learning (training) algorithm was adopted from optimal   control
theory {BryHo:75} and is described in detail for the second order
model only.   Parameters for the Shunting Model may be found in U.S.
Provisional Application S.N. 60/041,287 filed on March 20, 1997, the
disclosure of which is incorporated herein by reference.
30   The goal of the training procedure is to find the best model
parameters. The method is to reduce the discrepancy between the
prediction of the model and the actual data.   To do this, model
parameters are incrementally changed so that the discrepancy between
the actual and simulated time series is gradually decreased.   The
35   discrepancy L (Figure 3.8), also called   the Lagrangian, was defined as an

integral of the   squared difference between the predicted and actual symptom values through time. Later the Lagrange multiplier u which represents a constraint that the differential equation must hold is introduced, and will serve to simplify calculation of the gradient.

5   Referring now to Figure 3-8, a schematic description of the cost function L is illustrated. The formula inside the integration   has two terms 810 and 820 respectively.   By minimizing the first term 810, discrepancies between estimated and actual patterns of recovery are minimized. The second term 820 is a constraint term which states that the

10   differential equation must hold.

Estimating initial values of model parameters

          Vector auto regression analysis was applied to obtain the initial

15   estimates of the model's   parameters. The coefficient matrix in the first order differential equation 3.13 is analogous to an   auto regression matrix when the equation is approximated by   a difference equation.   Therefore, a first order regression matrix was computed, and a part of the matrix was used to calculate initial values of the parameters of

20   differential equations.

          Second order equations for x (Equation3.6) were first decomposed into a set of first order differential equations.

25 (3.10)

$$\dot{x}_i \; = \; y_i$$

$$\dot{y}_i \; = \; -A_i y_i + \sum_j w_{ij}(x_j - B_j) + u_i s(t) + v_i h(t) \qquad (3.11).$$

30

Or, in a matrix form,

where P is the set of parameters in this equation ($w_{ij}, A_i, B_i, u_i, v_i$).

Initial values of the parameters were estimated using regression analysis, and then optimized through a training procedure {BryHo:75}.

35   The auto regression matrix was calculated for a vector $[X_i]$ which

$$
\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = f(P, x, t) \tag{3.12}
$$

$$
= \left[\begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & & I & \\ \hline & -A_1 & & \\ w_{ij} & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ & & & -A_n \end{array}\right] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

$$
- \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ w_{ij} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ \vdots \\ B_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ u_i \end{bmatrix} s(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ v_i \end{bmatrix} h(t) \tag{3.13}
$$

includes the symptom variables x_i, their derivatives y_i, and immediate intervention effect $s(t)$.

5

$$X' = [x_1 \ldots x_n \ s(t) \ y_1 \ldots y_n \ s'(t)]^T \qquad (3.14)$$

10   In this initial estimation process, the immediate intervention effect from $s(t)$ was treated as another variable, and the latent intervention effect from $h(t)$ was ignored. Although $s^\wedge(0)$ is undefined, it is assumed to be 1.0, the difference of $s(0)$ - $s(-1)$. With these preparations, the calculation of the auto
15   regression matrix and extraction of the initial parameters of the differential equations from the auto regression matrix were carried out as follows:

Step 1: Compute a regression matrix
       Covariance matrices of X with two different time intervals
20   Lambda(1) and Lambda(2) were calculated, the results of which were used to calculate an auto regression matrix. First order regression on a time series vector $X'(t)$ was defined as follows.

25

$$X'(t+1) = \underline{\Phi}_1 X'(t) + \gamma(t) \qquad (3.15)$$

30

where Phi$_1$ is the first order regression matrix, and $r(t)$ is a disturbance (white noise) vector. Phi$_1$ is calculated from correlation matrices.

$$\Phi_1 = \Lambda(1)\Lambda^{-1}(0)$$

5

where Lambda(k) is the k_{th} covariance matrix. A covariance matrix is calculated from the actual time series data $X^{\wedge}{}'$, as an average of
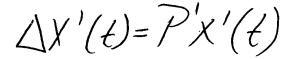10 covariance over time t and over patients.

$$\Lambda(k)_{ij} = E\left(X_i'(t)X_j'(t-k)\right)$$

15

Derivatives y_i in X' are approximated by the first
difference $x_i - x_{i-1}$. The unit of time is weeks because the
20 HDRS symptom measurements were obtained weekly

Step 2: Compute the Transition Matrix
        This step estimates P', a transition matrix of symptoms
25 from which initial parameters will be extracted. The transition matrix is
a parameter in the state space difference equation that approximates
the differential equation.

$$\Delta X'(t) = P'X'(t)$$

30

P' is calculated based on Phi$_1$, the auto-regression matrix calculated in Step 1. From equations 3.15 and 3.18,

$$X'(t+1) - X'(t) \;=\; P'X'(t) \tag{3.19}$$

$$X'(t+1) \;=\; X'(t) + P'X'(t) \tag{3.20}$$

$$=\; (I + P')X'(t) \tag{3.21}$$

$$P' \;=\; \Phi_1 - I \tag{3.22}$$

where I is an identity matrix.

Step 3: Extract Initial Parameter

An examination of the inner structure of P in equation 3.13 showed that it was appropriate to initialize the parameters as follows.

$$A_i^0 \;=\; 1 - P'_{i'i'} \tag{3.23}$$

$$w_{ij}^0 \;=\; P'_{i'j} \tag{3.24}$$

$$u_i^0 \;=\; P'_{i'\,N+1} \tag{3.25}$$

where $i' = i + n = i + N + 1$. N is the number of symptom factors and $N + 1$ is the index corresponding to the intervention variable $s(t)$.

The following parameters were initialized to constants.

$$B_i^0 = 0 \tag{3.26}$$

$$\alpha^0 = \frac{t_{max}}{2} \tag{3.27}$$

$$\Delta t^0 = 0 \tag{3.28}$$

$$v_i^0 = 0 \tag{3.29}$$

Optimization

The goal of the optimization process was to find the best parameters, *i.e.* those parameter values that yield the best fit to the data. This was accomplished through minimizing L, the squared error integrated over time. Each term is described in Figure 3·8.

$$L(P) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \|R(O(t) - X(P,t))\|^2 dt + \frac{1}{2} K \|P\|^2 \tag{3.30}$$

where

$$R_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & if \quad i \neq j \\ 1 & if \quad i = j \leq N \\ \lambda & if \quad i = j > N \end{cases} \tag{3.31}$$

Where $i' = i+n = I+N+1$. N is the number of symptom
factors and $N+1$ is the index corresponding to the intervention variable $s(t)$.

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where

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5

10   Where P is the set of parameters, $O(t)$ is training data
(pre-processed as   described above in Patient Data and
$X(P,t)$ is the value of system equation 3.11 at time t.
Diagonal elements of R (equation 3.31)   determined the
relative importance of minimizing the error (equation 3.30)
15   for each element in X.   If lambda = 0 then the optimization is
insensitive to errors in the derivatives. If lambda = 1 then the
optimization evaluates, with the same importance, the errors in the
derivative and the errors in the variables. When our objective was to
compare the shunting and second order systems, we ran the simulations
20   with lambda set to zero so that the same error function would be
used   for the comparison   (see Table 3.3).   The term
$K||P||^2$ is used to keep the magnitude of the parameters from being
large. X is the concatenated vector of factors x_i and their
derivatives y_i.   It is similar to X' except it does not
25   include treatment intervention variables. The value of K was chosen
empirically (Optimization Procedure).

$$X = [x_1 \ldots x_n, \; y_1 \ldots y_n \,]^T \qquad\qquad (3.32)$$

30

Integration was carried out using fourth order Runge-Kutta method
with a time step of 1 [day]. Because the initial data were weekly, the data
35   were linearly interpolated to daily data to get the non-derivative

part of R. The derivative part of R was approximated by daily differences.

The gradient descent technique requires partial derivatives of L with respect to the components of P. To simplify the form of partial derivatives, a coefficient called the Lagrange multiplier (mu(t)) was introduced. The optimization process aims to minimize the quantity L, the Lagrangian. The term multiplying mu(t) is defined to be zero, as is explained below. This allows the meaning of $L(P)$ to remain unchanged from the error function, equation 3.30 while allowing the form of $L(P)$ to be amenable to the computation of the gradients with respect to parameters {BryHo:75}.

$$L(P) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \{\|R(O(t) - X(P,t))\|^2 + \mu(t)(\dot{X}(t) - f(P, X(P,t)))\}dt + \frac{1}{2}K\|P\|^2$$

$$(3.33)$$

In this equation, $f(P,X)$ is the right hand side of the original differential equation 3.13, satisfying

$$\dot{X}(P,t) = f(P, \hat{X}(P,t), t). \qquad (3.34)$$

Thus the term with mu(t) in the cost function, equation 3.33 is always zero at the local minima, and therefore mu(t) can be determined arbitrarily to make the form of partial derivative simple, i.e. not explicitly dependent on the parameters.

The partial derivative of L with respect to parameter P_j is

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial P_j} = \int_0^T \sum_i \{R_{ii}(X_i - O_i)\frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j} + \mu_i(\frac{\partial \dot{X}_i}{\partial P_j} - \sum_{k'} \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial X_{k'}}\frac{\partial X_{k'}}{\partial P_j} - \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial P_j})\}dt$$
$$+ KP_j$$

$$EI8571465301' \triangleq \int_0^T \sum_i \{(R_{ii}(X_i - O_i) - \sum_k \mu_k \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial X_i})\frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\}dt + \int_0^T \sum_i \mu_i \frac{\partial \dot{X}_i}{\partial P_j}dt$$

$$- \int_0^T \sum_i \mu_i \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial P_j}dt + KP_j$$

$$= \int_0^T \sum_i \{(R_{ii}(X_i - O_i) - \sum_k \mu_k \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial X_i} - \dot{\mu}_i)\frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\}dt + \sum_i \left[\mu_i \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\right]_0^T$$

$$- \int_0^T \sum_i \mu_i \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial P_j} + KP_j \qquad (3.35)$$

Integration by parts was used in the derivation from the second to the third line above.

$$\mu_i \int_0^T \frac{\partial \dot{X}_i}{\partial P_j}dt = \left[\mu_i \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\right]_0^T - \int_0^T \dot{\mu}_i \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}dt \qquad (3.36)$$

Because X_i is defined as an explicit function of P_j, it is difficult to calculate $\partial X_i / \partial P_i$ which is contained in the first term of equation 3.35. The necessity to calculate $\partial Y_i / \partial P_i$ was eliminated by constraining the term multiplying it to be zero. This is accomplished by setting

$$\dot{\mu}_i = R_{ii}(X_i - O_i) - \sum_k \mu_k \frac{\partial f_k}{\partial X_i} \qquad (3.37)$$

If it is assumed that

$$\begin{cases} X(0) \quad \text{is given} \quad \text{and therefore} \quad \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\Big|_{t=0} = 0 \\ \mu_i(T) = 0 \end{cases}$$

5

Then

$$\left[\mu_i \frac{\partial X_i}{\partial P_j}\right]_0^T = 0 \tag{3.38}$$

15 From equations 3.35, 3.36, and 3.38

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial P_j} = -\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_i \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial P_j} dt + K P_j \tag{3.39}$$

20

25 Thus we got a simpler form of gradient under the condition of satisfying equation 3.37. This condition is met by solving equation 3.37 for mu_i.

30

Optimization Procedure

The steps in the optimization procedure are as follows:
35 (0) Get first patient's data.

(1) Solve the differential equation 3.11 for symptom factors.
(2) Solve the differential equation 3.37 for Lagrange
    multipliers.
(3) Calculate the partial derivatives and update the parameters.
5   (4) Calculate the cost function L given in equation 3.33.
(5) Unless one of the following holds, Stop and terminate the optimization.

   The average of the absolute value of L for the 4 most recent cycles
   decreased from the preceding 4 cycles by more than 0.01%.

10

   Fewer than 300 cycles have been processed.

(6) Get next patient's data. If there are no more patients, then
start over with the first patient's data. Go to (1).

15

   Differential equations were solved using the fourth order Runge-Kutta
method with a step size of 1.0 [day].
The explanation for each step follows.

20

Solve the differential equation for symptom factors
   To predict the time course of symptom factors, integrate [forward]
equations 3.10 and 3.11. The notation in equation 3.13 is changed here to
separate the variable vector into non-derivative x_i and derivative y_i parts.

25

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \end{bmatrix} = \int \begin{bmatrix} f_{x_i}(X) \\ f_{y_i}(X) \end{bmatrix} dt \qquad (3.40)$$

30

Solve the differential equation for Lagrange multipliers
   To solve for the Lagrange multipliers, integrate Equation 3.37
backwards i.e. from $t=T$ to $t=0$).

$$\dot{\mu_{xi}} = (x_i - O_{xi}) - \sum_k \mu_{xk} \frac{\partial f_{xk}}{\partial x_i} - \sum_k \mu_{yk} \frac{\partial f_{yk}}{\partial x_i}$$

$$= (x_i - O_{xi}) - \sum_k \mu_{yk} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \sum_j w_{kj} x_j$$

$$= (x_i - O_{xi}) - \sum_k \mu_{yk} w_{ki} \tag{3.41}$$

$$\dot{\mu_{yi}} = \lambda(y_i - O_{yi}) - \sum_k \mu_{xk} \frac{\partial f_{xk}}{\partial y_i} - \sum_k \mu_{yk} \frac{\partial f_{yk}}{\partial y_i}$$

$$= \lambda(y_i - O_{yi}) - \mu_{xi} + \mu_{yi} A_i \tag{3.42}$$

$$\mu_{xi}(t) = \mu_{xi}(T) + \int_0^{T-t} (-\dot{\mu_{xi}}(T - u)) du \tag{3.43}$$

$$\mu_{yi}(t) = \mu_{yi}(T) + \int_0^{T-t} (-\dot{\mu_{yi}}(T - u)) du \tag{3.44}$$

Where mu_i $(T) = 0$ is the boundary condition.

5   Calculate partial derivatives and update parameters where P_j is a general term for the parameters A_j, B_j, w_{ij}, u_j, v_j, alpha, and Δt. The correspondence can be, for instance, $P_1 = A_1$, $P_2 = A_2$, ...$P_N = A_N$, $P_{N+1} = B_1$, $P_{N+2} = B_2$ and so on. Learning constant varepsilon was set to 0.0001 and parameter magnitude constraint coefficient K was set to 0.0001.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta P_j &= -\varepsilon \frac{\partial L}{\partial P_j} \\
&= \varepsilon \left(\int_0^T \sum_i \left(\mu_{xi} \frac{\partial f_{xi}}{\partial P_j} + \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial P_j} \right) dt - K P_j \right) \\
&= \varepsilon \left(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial P_j} dt - K P_j \right)
\end{aligned}
\qquad (3.45)
$$

$$\Delta A_j = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial A_j} dt - KA_j)$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T -\mu_{yj} A_j dt - KA_j) \qquad (3.46)$$

$$\Delta B_j = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial B_j} dt - KB_j)$$

$$= \varepsilon \int_0^T (-(\sum_i \mu_{yi} w_{ij} - KB_j) dt \qquad (3.47)$$

$$\Delta w_{jk} = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial w_{jk}} dt - Kw_{jk})$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} (\sum_l w_{il}(x_l - B_l) dt - Kw_{jk})$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T -\mu_{yj}(x_k - B_k) dt - Kw_{jk}) \qquad (3.48)$$

$$\Delta u_j = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial u_j} st - Ku_j)$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T \mu_{yj} s(t) dt - Ku_j) \qquad (3.49)$$

$$\Delta v_j = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial v_j} dt - Kv_j)$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T \mu_{yj} v(t) dt - Kv_j) \qquad (3.50)$$

$$\Delta \alpha = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial \alpha} dt - K\alpha)$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T (t - \Delta t) e^{-\alpha(t-\Delta t)} H^2(\alpha, \Delta t, t) \sum_i \mu_{yi} v_i dt - K\alpha) \qquad (3.51)$$

$$\Delta(\Delta t) = \varepsilon(\int_0^T \sum_i \mu_{yi} \frac{\partial f_{yi}}{\partial \Delta t} dt - K\Delta t)$$

$$= \varepsilon(\int_0^T \alpha e^{-\alpha(t-\Delta t)}(-H^2(\alpha, \Delta t, t)) \sum_i \mu_{yi} v_i dt - K\Delta t) \qquad (3.52)$$

$$\qquad (3.53)$$

where

$$H(\alpha, \Delta t, t) = h(\alpha, \Delta t, t) + 0.5 \qquad (3.54)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha(t-\Delta t)}} \qquad (3.55)$$

5   Similar equations adapted from optimal control theory were used to find parameters for the shunting model shown in Luciano, U.S. Provisional Application S.N. 60/041,287 filed on March 20, 1997, the disclosure of which is incorporated herein by reference.

10   Results: Introduction and Rationale

This section and the following three sections present the results of the optimization procedure on linearly interpolated weekly data that was used to estimate parameters of a single model for each treatment group. Each patient's week zero data were used as the initial

15   conditions for a patient-specific run of the treatment group parameterized model to see the patient-specific predicted evolution of the symptom factors. The symptom half reduction times predicted by the group-parameterized, but individually-initialized runs were then computed and the resulting numbers used in the Mann-Whitney analyses

20   of these data. Unless otherwise noted, quantitative references to symptoms, symptom factors, or modeled symptom values (MSV) are references to model predictions and not original data.

Below in "Quantitative Fit of Model to Data" shows the correlation

25   between the model's predicted recovery patterns and the actual recovery patterns
and justifies the relevance of the Mann-Whitney U tests presented in subsequent sections. "Results: Model Choice" presents the goodness of fit statistics that justified the choice of the linear

30   second order system over the first order (shunting) system to model the recovery pattern. "Results: Statistical Inferences" presents the differences in the treatment models obtained through statistical analysis of the half reduction times predicted by the second order model. "Results: Parameter Choice" presents the parameters

35   obtained for the two treatment models. These treatment group

optimized parameters capture the   essence of the   different characteristics found   in   the patterns of   recovery for the two treatments.

5   Quantitative Fit of Model to Data

The second order model   (discussed below) predicts aspects   of the actual recovery patterns that it was not trained on, i.e., the correlation with the half reduction time. This is evidence that the
10   model has captured some of the underlying dynamics of the individual symptoms.

The statistic for the goodness of fit of the second order model to the data was   presented above, in Table 3.3.   The F-statistic reported values were meant to be rough indicators of the goodness of fit and were be
15   taken with caution for the following three reasons: (1) the assumption of data independence is violated (because the target data were time series data and therefore   not independent); (2) the data were not partitioned into disjoint training   and test sets; and (3) about half of the raw data was eliminated because the half reduction time was not defined in the actual
20   data or the model predicted symptom trajectory. As additional patient data is added to the model, the F-statistic values should gain value as indicators of goodness of fit, thus increasing the predictive value of the model.

However, notwithstanding the statistical reliability questions raised by the violation of the assumptions,   the level of significance
25   obtained was high ($p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$) that it was enough to justify further study of the predicted recovery patterns. Below it is demonstrated that the model predictions for the value of symptom half reduction times, to which the model was blind during training (and is therefore an independent measure), is highly correlated with the half
30   reduction times of the actual data. Therefore, in "Results: Statistics" the statistical study of half reduction times is provided.

Use of the Predicted Half Reduction Time Derived Measure
In "Results: Statistics" the half reduction time measure
35   is used to quantify predicted aspects of the treatment dependent

models. This is justified for the following two reasons. First, the
fit to the data of the second order model is highly significant (shown
in Table 3.3 and discussed below). Second, the half
reduction times computed from the model's predictions were regressed
5   against the half reduction times computed from the raw data to
determine the relationship between them and the results indicated that
they were highly correlated overall (shown in Table 3.2. Furthermore,
the CBT model predicted half reduction time values versus the actual data
half reduction time values are highly significant. However, the model fit
10   to the data is not as good for DMI (see Table 3.3). In this case, the
correlation of a half-reduction time and significance for DMI (shown
in Table 3.2) is not significant. This suggests that the comparisons of the
half reduction times between CBT and DMI, and within the DMI group, may
not be directly reflected in the raw data, however, this cannot be
15   determined without further data from recovering patients. More data is
needed because in the data utilized, there were many cases where the half
reduction time was not defined either because a symptom was not present
or did not improve in either the raw data or the model predictions. In
these cases, the half reduction time could not be used in the calculation of
20   the correlation reported in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2:   Predicted and Actual Symptom Half Reduction Time Statistics. Statistics were calculated between actual half reduction times from data linearly interpolated and model predicted half reduction time data. r is Pearson's correlation coefficient, r^2 is the proportion of variance, t is an Student's t-statistic, and p is the probability for the null hypothesis to hold.

Half Reduction Time Correlation Results				
Group	N	r^2	t	p
CBT + DMI	44	0.1955	3.1943	< 0.01
CBT	21	0.5852	5.1776	< 0.001
DMI	23	0.0515	1.0681	ns

Results: Model Choice

Qualitative Reasons for Choice of Second Order System

5   Referring now to Figure 3-9, predicted patterns of recovery produced
using (a) the shunting and (b) the second order equations wherein the solid
lines show actual patterns derived from patient clinical data and dotted
lines show predicted patterns. Numbers shown at the vertical axis are
scaled such that the possible maximum symptom factor value yields $1.0.
10   The plot at the bottom right in both (a) and (b) shows the error L on the
ordinate axis plotted against number of training cycles on the abscissa.
Note that the absolute values of the error measure L cannot be compared
between shunting and second order equations, because the latter
includes errors in the derivatives of L. As can be seen in Figure 3-9 (CBT
15   patient 1840201 MOOD) oscillatory patterns were discovered in the data.
      Referring now to Figure 3-10 which illustrates plots of individual
recovery patterns with time in response to either CBT treatment or DMI
treatment. Plots show patterns of recovery by symptom such as for
example a1 "anxiety", a2 "cognitions, a3 "mood", a4 "work", a5 "energy",
20   a6 " early sleep", and a7 "middle and late sleep", monitored in four patients
a, b, c, and d, except for a8, b8, c8, and d8 which show the error trend for
each patient monitored. A solid line represents the actual pattern of
recovery exhibited by a patient in response to treatment. A dotted line
represents the predicted pattern of recovery. Numbers shown at the
25   vertical axis are scaled such that possible maximum symptom factor value
yields 1.0. Plots a8, b8, c8, and d8 show the error L on the ordinate axis
plotted against the number of training cycles shown on the abscissa.
      Plotting the patterns of recovery for individual patients who
responded to either of two treatments (CBT or DMI) , it was discovered that
30   some of the recovery patterns seem to have oscillatory components. In
Figure 3-10 (DMI patient 1810101 MOOD), and (CBT patient 1800201
COGNITIONS), illustrate this. Oscillatory components can be captured
naturally by second order or higher order equations. First order
equations can model oscillations only by interactions among variables.
35   Therefore, if there is an oscillation observed in one symptom factor

in a first order system, there has to be another symptom factor or some covert factor, oscillating at the same rate. This type of coupled oscillation was not observed in the overt factor data.

5   Another observation was that a characteristic profile of activations over time in a first order shunting equation was an abrupt initial change that slowed as it approaches equilibrium, similar to an exponential decay. This was not commonly observed in clinical data. For example, mood and work factors in Figure 3-9 show exponential increase from pre-treatment to the start of treatment and
10   exponential decrease after the start of treatment.

These qualitative observations, which are later quantitatively confirmed, resulted in the choice of a second order system. Figure 3-10 shows some examples of individual patient recovery patterns as predicted by the model using the optimized parameters. A solid line
15   corresponds to raw weekly data. A dashed line corresponds to a prediction from the pre-treatment symptom factors and the optimized parameters. While these individual fits are rough, they captured the overall trends of the recovery patterns.

It can be seen from the graphs of patient data in Figure 3-10
20   that each individual's time course of respo nsediffered greatly from another's. This made it difficult to visually evaluate the optimization process, simply by looking at the results of the parameter optimization on the individual data. As an aid in the visual assessment of the optimization, and to ensure consistency, the
25   optimization process was also performed on the mean of the six treatment responders for each treatment group. Figure 3-11 shows the time course illustrating the results of the optimization performed on CBT mean data and DMI mean data. The optimization on the mean data yielded correlation coefficients of 0.89 and 0.84 between the estimated
30   mean symptom values and the mean data values in the CBT and DMI groups, respectively.

Statistical Reasons for Choice of Second Order System

35   The second order model provided a better fit to

the data. The number of data points fit were 252: 6 patients times
7 symptoms times 6 weeks (6 X 7 X 6). Table 3.3 shows the
F-statistics for the fits to the data for the two models. The second
order model fit the data better than the first order (shunting) model
5   for the CBT data, but the fit was roughly the same for the DMI data,
with only a slight improvement with the second order model. The fits of the
data were tested to determine if the fit was significantly better
using the second order model by performing an R to Z transformation
and then testing the difference in the z-scores obtained.   The results of
10   these tests are shown in Table 3.4, where it can be observed that in the
case of the CBT data, the goodness of fit for the second order model was
significantly better than the first order model.   For the DMI data,
the difference was not significant between the two models.

     It can also be seen from the table that the second order equations
15   showed   higher correlations for CBT and   approximately the same
correlation for DMI data.   In a separately conducted simulation which
used splined data (accomplished using the cubic spline interpolation of
deBoor {deBoor:78}), correlation   and L_0 were higher for both
treatments. Although not shown in the table, the pattern of
20   statistical significance was the same. Specifically, the fit of the
second order model was significantly better on the CBT data than on
the DMI data, where there were no significant differences.

     The second order model provides a better description of the data for
both qualitative and quantitative reasons, as discussed above. Detailed
25   results of the second order system are presented.

Table 3.3: F-statistic of First and Second Order Models.
F-statistic results for first order and second order systems (79
parameters). Statistics were calculated between actual
30   data linearly interpolated and predicted data by the model. r is
Pearson's correlation coefficient, r^2 is   the   proportion of
variance, F is an F-statistic, and$p$ is the probability for the
null hypothesis to hold.   For the calculation of the F-statistic,
degrees of freedom were$(N_1 , N_2) = (252, 79)$ where N_1 is the

number of predicted weekly data and N_2 is the number of free parameters. L_0 is the sum of squares of difference between the actual data after linearly interpolation and the predicted data accumulated on a daily basis. For the simulations underlying these calculations, lambda was set to zero for the second order. This ignores errors in the first derivative allowing direct comparison of the two models

Cognitive Behavioral Therapy					
System	F	p	r^2	r	L_0
First Order	3.05	$< 1 \times 10^{-5}$	0.530	0.728	27.0
Second Order	5.36	$< 1 \times 10^{-5}$	0.664	0.815	17.5
Desipramine					
System	F	p	r^2	r	L_0
First Order	1.78	0.00058	0.397	0.630	27.2
Second Order	1.90	0.00016	0.412	0.642	24.7

Table 3.4: Result of R to Z transformation and comparison of significance of differences of the goodness of fit for the first order versus the second order systems. Subscript 1 indicates (shunting) first order system, subscript 2 indicates second order system. p is the significance as a normal deviate.

Significance of Difference of First and Second Order Models								
Treatment	N	r_1	r_2	z_1	z_2	z_{diff}	statistic	p
CBT	252	0.728	0.815	0.924	1.124	0.217	-2.424	0.0152
DMI	252	0.630	0.642	0.741	0.762	-0.020	-0.225	0.8218

Results: Statistical Inferences

Timing of Symptom Improvement
        In this section, results are presented from the studies that address
5   timing aspects of the response patterns as predicted by the treatment
     models. The timing aspects are based on the derived measure half
     reduction time.   Table 3.5 gives the mean half reduction time for each
     symptom by treatment. Figure 3-12 provides graphs of these data. The half
     reduction times for symptoms subject to cognitive behavioral therapy
10   (CBT) are shown in the upper portion of the figure and   those for
     desipramine (DMI) are   shown in the lower portion of the figure. The
     aspects that were studied were (1) a comparison of when symptoms
     were predicted to improve between the two treatments; (2) comparison of
     when symptoms were predicted improve relative to each other within a
15   given treatment, and (3) a comparison of the temporal duration of the
     predicted symptom response times between the two treatments.

Table 3.5   Reduction Time [weeks] statistics computed
from patterns generated by the optimized model.
20

Symptom	CBT			DMI		
	mean	std	N	mean	std	N
Mood	1.37	1.36	5	2.09	0.57	6
Cognitions	1.51	1.37	3	3.54	0.93	5
Work	2.21	0.49	5	2.67	1.95	5
Anxiety	2.57	0.80	6	3.74	3.24	6
Energy	2.76	1.06	6	2.10	1.48	6
E Sleep	4.63	1.32	3	2.96	1.82	5
M,L Sleep	5.04	1.33	3	3.89	1.15	2

Comparison of Response Times Between Treatments

The response times of symptoms between the two treatments were compared. A Mann-Whitney U test on half reduction times of symptoms (as predicted by the model) was performed. The

5 results presented in Table 3.6 indicate significant differences in the response times of the mood and cognitions (sad mood, thoughts of guilt or suicide, and anxious mood) between the two treatments. For these symptoms only, the half reduction times were shorter in the patients who responded to cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) than they were for the

10 patients who responded to desipramine (DMI). Furthermore, as shown in Table 3.6 in CBT the mood and cognitions (sad mood, thoughts of guilt or suicide, and anxious mood) were the first symptoms to respond. There was no significant difference in the response time of the overall (50\% decrease in) severity of the

15 depressive episode for the two treatments ($p = 0.294$).

Table 3.6   Mann-Whitney U Tests (two-tailed) for significant difference in symptom half reduction times of predicted patient trajectories as derived from group parameterized models. The

20 distribution was derived by running the same treatment group model from individual-specific conditions. Half reduction times for CBT and DMI are given in days. Significance values p (two-tailed).

25

Half reduction time [days] differences between mean CBT and DMI patients						
Symptom	Mann-Whitney U	N_1	N_2	p	DMI	CBT
Cognitions	1	5	6	.008	25	12
Mood	1	5	5	.016	15	11
Anxiety	4	6	6	.026	21	19
Energy	7	6	6	.094	16	20
Middle, Late Sleep	4	4	5	.190	28	36
Early Sleep	3	4	5	.212	22	32
Severity	14	6	6	.294	22	20[1]
Work	12	6	6	.394	20	16

[1] indicates that the mean was computed over all symptoms *and* over all patients.

30

35

[1] indicates that the mean was computed over all symptoms and over all patients.

These data indicate that Cognitive Behavioral Therapy acts first on
mood and cognitions (sad mood, thoughts of guilt or suicide, and
anxious mood). Moreover, this effect occurs significantly earlier in
patients treated with CBT than in patients treated with DMI. This
5   early response may be a result of interactions between the patient and
therapist, whereby distorted cognitions, ways of thinking
or interpreting events in the world, are identified, discussed, and
treated. The hypothesis that desipramine may act directly and
initially on the physiological factors energy/retardation is supported
10   in the data by a trend ($p < 0.1$).

Sequence of Symptom Improvement Within A Treatment Group
The sequence, or order in which symptoms improved, was determined
by using the half reduction times that were computed for each symptom.
15   The ascending order by CBT half reduction times for both CBT and DMI
are given in   Table3.5 and shown   graphically in
Figure 3-12}. From Figure 3-12} it can be seen
that the order in which symptoms respond, i.e. the sequence of half
reduction times are different between the two treatment groups.
20   Significant differences in these sequences are presented in two parts.
The first part (discussed above) shows that some symptoms (cognitions,
mood, anxiety) improve significantly earlier in CBT than in DMI. The
second part (discussed below) shows that within treatment groups there
may be significant differences in the half reduction times of
25   individual symptom factors.
In patients who   responded to CBT, the symptoms improved in the
following order: Mood, Cognitions, Work, Anxiety, Energy, Early Sleep,
and finally, Middle and Late Sleep. By comparison, in patients who
responded to DMI, the order in which symptoms was: Mood, Energy, Work,
30   Early Sleep, Cognitions, Anxiety, Middle and Late Sleep. In both
treatment patient groups, Mood was the first symptom to improve and
Middle and Late Sleep was the last. The initial improvement in Mood may be
due to a non-specific treatment effect, perhaps resulting from the
patient participating in a research study, which could have given rise
35   to a more hopeful outlook.

Mean Half Reduction Time

Treatment Group

Figure 3-12:   The model's predicted values of latency for individual
symptom factors. Note that in the DMI patients, the model predicts that
the first symptom latency is 2.09 weeks (mood) and last symptom latency
is 3.89 (middle and late sleep), thus the range for all symptoms to respond
1.8 weeks. In CBT patients, the model predicts that the first symptom
latency is 1.37 weeks (mood) and last symptom improvement latency is
5.04   (middle and late sleep), thus the range for· all symptoms to
respond is 3.7 weeks of the six weeks studied.

Overlap of Symptom Improvement

Referring now to Figure 3-12, predicted mean half reduction time in weeks for seven symptoms in response to two treatments ((CBT = a) and (DMI = b)) are shown graphically. Mean half response time is shown for mood

5   1210 a, b; cognitive symptoms 1220 a, b; work 1230 a, b; anxiety 1240 a, b; energy 1250 a, b; early sleep 1260 a, b; and middle to late sleep 1270 a, b for each treatment respectively. The numbers at the end of each bar indicate the time in weeks predicted to be required to observe a mean half reduction time.

10   The time sequence of symptom improvement was studied, in order to understand whether the symptoms improved at the same time (concurrently) or one after another (sequentially). The mean half reduction time for each symptom (Table 3.5 and Figure 3-12) is the time from the beginning of treatment until the symptom decreases to half its

15   initial value. This was used to compare the order of symptom improvement between and within each treatment group (Table 3.7 (CBT) and Table 3.8 (DMI)).

Statistics were calculated for both the CBT and DMI groups separately. Symptom data that were not predicted to improve over the initial six week

20   treatment period were omitted, as indicated by the fact that the number of data points N are less than the number of responders (6) in Table 3.5. Results are schematically shown in Figure 3-13.

Results presented in Tables 3.7 and 3.8, and depicted in Figure 3-13 are conservative. To determine the sequence of recovery, symptoms were

25   first ordered by latency and then examined for significant differences in latency between each symptom and its nearest neighbor. Where latency differed by $p < 0.05$ a decrease was defined. In the CBT group, there is a significant difference ($p = .052$) between the half reduction time for the Energy symptom factor and the Early Sleep symptom factor, thus

30   suggesting two distinct phases of symptom improvement. Moreover, there was also a trend (p=0.063) for another split between Cognitions (thoughts of guilt and suicide) and Work (work and interests). No significant differences were found between nearest neighbors in the DMI half reduction time sequence of symptom improvement, suggesting a concurrent

35   improvement of symptom factors.

CBT Within Group Comparison of individual patient's half times.							
Symptom	Anxiety $n = 6$	Cognitions $n = 6$	Mood $n = 5$	Work $n = 6$	Energy $n = 6$	E Sleep $n = 4$	ML Sleep $n = 5$
Anxiety $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$	—	C<A .082	M<A .008	.588	.394	.126	A<MLS .020
Cognitions $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$		—	.310	C<W .063	C<E .082	C<ES .016	C<MLS .016
Mood $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$			—	M<W .004	M<E .004	M<ES .018	M<MLS .016
Work $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$				—	W<E .064	W<ES .018	W<MLS .010
Energy $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$					—	E<ES .052	E<MLS .010
E Sleep $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$						—	.804

Table 3.7   Within group (CBT) comparison of individual patient's half reduction times as predicted by the model after training. Mann-Whitney U Test was used to find significance values (p). P values reported are two tailed, (with the direction indicated in each case). If the model predicted non-improvement in the severity of a symptom, then the value was obtained by omitting these cases from the calculation and thereby reducing N to n, the reduced number of cases.

DMI Within Group Comparison of individual patient's half times.							
Symptom	Anxiety $n = 6$	Cognitions $n = 6$	Mood $n = 5$	Work $n = 6$	Energy $n = 6$	E Sleep $n = 4$	ML Sleep $n = 5$
Anxiety $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$	—	.310	M<A .008	W<A .042	E<A .004	.172	.930
Cognitions $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$		—	M<C .030	.180	E<C .042	.114	.930
Mood $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$			—	.330	.792	.190	M<MLS .016
Work $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$				—	.394	.762	.126
Energy $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$					—	.352	E<MLS .018
E Sleep $N_1 = n, N_2 = n$						—	.412

Table 3.8   Within group (DMI) comparison of individual patient's half reduction times as predicted by the model after training. Mann-Whitney U Test was used to find significance values (p). p values reported are two tailed, (with the direction indicated in each case). If the model predicted non-improvement in the severity of a symptom, then the value was obtained by omitting these cases from the calculation and thereby reducing N to n, the reduced number of cases.

Figure 3-13 diagrams the time sequence of symptom improvement. The vertical axis shows the mean half reduction time in weeks; the horizontal axis has no meaning. Symptom names are enclosed by small white ellipses and placed vertically at their mean half

5   reduction time. Symptom names are placed vertically at their mean half reduction time. Significant difference ($p<0.05$ after rounding) between half reduction times of energy and early sleep disturbance. There is a trend ($p<0.10$ after rounding) for a split between cognitions and work in CBT responders. In DMI there were no significant differences (or trends)

10   in the sequence.

This result suggests that the order and timing in which symptoms improve, one aspect of the recovery pattern, is different for those patients who responded CBT from the order observed in those patients who responded to DMI. This could represent a different population, or

15   it could represent a different method of successful therapy.

The difference in recovery patterns between CBT and DMI reflect possible differences in the method of action of the different therapies. The two main differences are (1) it is harder to distinguish separate groupings for DMI than for CBT, arguing for

20   concurrent effects in DMI and sequential effects in CBT, and (2) Improvement in the cognitive symptoms (guilt and suicide) and mood tended to drive the response in the patients who responded to CBT, whereas mood improvement, energy and psychomotor retardation tended to drive the response in the DMI responsive patients. This suggests

25   different modes of action of the two treatments.

DMI Symptom Half Reduction Times by Patient

Table 3.9 shows the average and the individual patient's half reduction times for each symptom factor as predicted by the

30   model. Note that n is the number of symptoms the model predicts will improve by six weeks of treatment. A ``---'' indicates that the model predicts the symptom will not improve within the first six weeks.

35

Table 3.9: DMI Half reduction time [days] as predicted by the model. Number (n) is the number of symptoms that the model predicts will improve over the six week course, and ``---" indicates a symptom that the model predicts will not improve within the first six weeks of treatment.

Patient	Anx	Cog	Mood	Work	Energy	E Sle	ML Sle	Severity
155	23	32	21	11	21	16	37	23
157	25	25	13	31	15	–	20	18
165	33	23	17	15	17	–	27	21
167	34	31	–	22	13	33	31	31
175	23	22	12	19	14	13	21	18
181	19	12	10	14	8	21	–	12
Mean	27	25	15	20	16	22	28	20[1]
Number (n)	6	6	5	6	6	4	5	6

[1] mean computed over all symptoms and over all patients.

[1] mean computed over all symptoms and over all patients.

CBT Symptom Half Reduction Times by Patient

Table 3.10 shows the average and individual patient's half reduction times for each symptom factor as predicted by the model. Note that n is the number of symptoms the model predicts will improve by six weeks of treatment. A ``---" indicates that the model predicts the symptom will not improve within the first six weeks.

Table 3.10: CBT Half reduction time [days] as predicted by the model. Number (n) is the number of symptoms that the model predicts will improve over the six week course, and ``---" indicates a symptom that the model predicts will not improve within the first six weeks of treatment.

Patient	Anx	Cog	Mood	Work	Energy	E Sle	ML Sle	Severity
180	19	5	10	13	21	40	–	18
183	18	9	10	17	20	39	42	20
184	11	22	–	18	16	38	35	16
191	30	7	12	19	24	28	37	25
193	18	–	8	12	19	17	27	15
195	12	10	8	14	16	–	–	19
Mean	19	12	11	16	20	32	36	20[1]
Number (n)	6	5	5	6	6	5	4	6

[1] mean computed over all symptoms and over all patients.

Range Score: Temporal Duration of Treatment Response

Table 3.11 shows the range scores for each patient in each studied. The range score for a patient is the interval [in days] between the half reduction time of the first symptom to

5 improve and the half reduction time of the last symptom to improve. To determine whether the range scores were significantly different for the two treatment groups, a Mann-Whitney U test was performed. The test results are shown in Table 3.12 , and indicate that the range scores were not significantly different.

10 Although these samples are very small there is supporting evidence to warrant further consideration. Recall that some symptoms were not predicted to have a half reduction time for some initial data. In those cases, the symptoms were omitted from the calculation. If however, instead of omitting the symptom, the missing value is

15 substituted by the mean value over all responders from that study is substituted, the results were significant ($p = 0.016$). Because the sample is so small, we cannot tell whether or not the two-tailed significance value of 0.132 would be significant in larger sample size and thus show the range of response times to be significantly

20 different. While the data do suggest at least two phases in the action of CBT and only one phase in the action of DMI, no further conclusions can be drawn at present with this sample.

Table 3.11 CBT and DMI range scores for twelve patients who responded to CBT or DMI. Values given are the number of days between the first and last symptoms to reach their half reduction time as predicted by the model after training. Three range scores are given whose value differs only where the model predicted that a symptom would not improve. The first omits these cases from the range score and the second uses the mean.

Range Scores					
DMI			CBT		
Patient	Range (omit)	Range (mean)	Patient	Range (omit)	Range (mean)
155	26	26	180	35	35
157	12	12	183	33	33
165	18	18	184	27	27
167	21	21	191	30	30
175	11	11	193	19	19
181	13	20	195	8	28

Table 3.12   CBT vs DMI range scores   differences. The Mann-Whitney U Test for significant difference was applied to individual patient's range scores.   Significance values (p)   are two tailed, (direction indicated in Response column). The difference in significance is because using the mean as a substitute for a missing half reduction
5   value does not change N whereas the omission of those symptoms reduces N.

CBT vs DMI Range Score Comparison				
Mann-Whitney U	N_1	N_2	p	Response
3	6	6	.016	DMI < CBT (mean)
8	6	6	.132	DMI < CBT (omitted)

15
Results: Parameter Choice

This section presents the parameters obtained from the two treatment models. These parameters   reveal differences in the patterns
20   of recovery for the two treatments. Using the optimized parameters and the pre-treatment symptom factors for each patient, differences in parametric choice are discussed.

Latency and Steepness Parameters
25   Latency and steepness (Δt and alpha, respectively) were optimized over all symptoms over all patients. Optimization of the second order network's latency parameter Δt indicated a 1.2 week latency for treatment with cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) and a 3.4 week latency for treatment with the tricyclic antidepressant
30   drug desipramine (DMI) as shown in Table 3.13.
        Steepness of onset of the delayed treatment effect (the parameter alpha in the sigmoid function) were very close to 3.0 for both CBT and DMI (Table 3.13).

35

Table 3.13   Latency [week] and steepness [week^{-1}] of the latent effect of treatment as predicted by the model.

Parameter	CBT	DMI
Latency	1.22	3.42
Steepness	3.00	3.01

The result of the optimization of the model showed that latency parameter for CBT was very small (1.2 weeks), whereas the latency parameter for DMI was much larger, 3.4 weeks. This is consistent with the well established observation {Quitkin:84, Nierenberg:91, Quitkin:93} that anti-depressant drug treatments can take up to 4 weeks before they become effective. The goodness of fit was relatively insensitive to the steepness of the sigmoid function and there was little change from the initial choice of the parameter.

Treatment Intervention Parameters

The direct effects of CBT and DMI treatment interventions are shown in Tables 3.16 and 3.17, respectively. To see if the raw data suggests a significant difference in treatment effects between the two treatment groups, the improvement rates in severity (Table 3.15, ANOVA results, Table 3.14 , t-test results) after six weeks of treatment were compared. Although the rates were different for mean overall improvement in severity (39\% for CBT and 57\% for DMI), the difference was not statistically significant between the two treatment groups.

Table 3.14   Symptom factor reduction rates after six weeks of treatment for raw data. N = the number patients in which the symptom improved. If
the symptom was not present, did not improve, or worsened, it was
excluded from the calculations. sd = standard deviation.

Symptom Factor	CBT			DMI			Significance level of difference (p)
	mean	sd	N	mean	sd	N	
Anxiety	0.26	0.46	6	0.46	0.51	6	0.504228
Cognitions	0.15	0.55	5	0.57	0.34	6	0.151835
Mood	0.31	0.51	6	0.47	0.51	5	0.613145
Work	0.50	0.50	5	0.75	0.42	6	0.389283
Energy	0.40	0.24	6	0.43	0.50	6	0.885714
E Sleep	0.50	0.71	2	0.67	0.58	3	0.788780
M,L Sleep	0.44	0.10	3	0.06	0.65	6	0.349958

Table 3.15   Severity reduction rates after six weeks of treatment
and results of ANOVA on raw data.

CBT	
Patient #	Reduction Rate (week 6)
180	0.00
183	0.59
184	0.56
191	0.04
193	0.48
195	0.68
mean	0.39
sd	0.30

DMI	
Patient #	Reduction Rate (week 6)
155	0.50
157	0.56
165	0.52
167	0.72
175	0.52
181	0.59
mean	0.57
sd	0.08

Source	SS	df	MS	$F(p)$
Treatments	0.0963	1	0.09363	1.998 (0.1878)
Error	0.4686	10	0.04686	
Total	0.5622	11		

The rest of this section focuses on the differences in direct effects of treatment on symptoms observed in the optimized model parameters.

The second order weight coefficients corresponding to immediate and delayed direct effects are shown in Figure 3-14. Immediate effects 5 are presented at the left, delayed effects are presented at the right. In CBT, the delay itself is very small (1.2 weeks) whereas for DMI, the delay is much larger (3.4 weeks).

There are two points that should be made. First, for CBT there is not much difference between direct and delayed effects on symptoms except 10 for insomnia, whereas for DMI delayed effects are dominant for cognitions and mood. Moreover, delay   for CBT is small (1.2 weeks) compared to that of DMI (3.4 weeks). This indicates that DMI works on cognition and mood at later time than CBT does.   Second, effects of CBT are undifferentiated among symptoms except Insomnia. Even the difference between Insomnia 15 and others disappears after 1.2 weeks. In contrast, the immediate effect of DMI is greatest on Work, and the delayed effect of DMI is greatest on Cognitions and Mood. A zero indicates that the model predicted the symptom would worsen initially.

Referring now to Figure 3.14 which provides a graphical comparison 20 of model's predicted (a) immediate and (b) delayed (latent) direct effects of treatment on symptoms for Cognitive Behavioral Therapy and Desipramine. A solid line represents CBT coefficient values, a dashed line represents DMI coefficient values. Symptom are represented along the x-axis. The coefficient values the parameter optimization 25 procedure indicate the strength of the effect on the symptom at the time the effect takes place, and are placed on the y-axis. For example, the delayed effect of cognitions for desipramine occurs at 3.4 weeks with a magnitude of almost 1.5, whereas the delayed effect of cognitions of CBT takes place at 1.2 weeks and has a magnitude of 30 about 4.2.   A zero indicates that the   model predicted the symptom would worsen initially.

35

Table 3.16:   Coefficients of immediate and latent effects from treatment to symptoms (CBT).

Symptom Factor	Immediate	Latent
Anxiety	-0.396	-0.428
Cognitions	-0.374	-0.424
Mood	-0.480	-0.171
Work	-0.538	-0.406
Energy	-0.309	-0.262
E Sleep	0.292	-0.289
M,L Sleep	0.273	-0.684

Table 3.16   Coefficients of immediate and latent effects to symptoms (DMI)

Symptom Factor	Immediate	Latent
Anxiety	0.243	-0.159
Cognitions	-0.471	-1.469
Mood	-0.351	-0.916
Work	-0.752	-0.116
Energy	-0.386	-0.236
E Sleep	-0.334	-0.229
M,L Sleep	-0.115	-0.784

Interaction Parameters

In analyzing the symptom interaction coefficients (see Tables 3.18 and 3.19), the first noticeable difference was in the patterns and magnitudes of the DMI interaction coefficients between the second order model and the shunting model. The second order model found stronger interactions for DMI treatment than the shunting model. This suggests that the second order system attributed simultaneous improvement to the interaction loops among symptoms.

Figures 3.15 and 3.16}, show interactions among symptoms, together with the sequence with which the symptoms improved. In these diagrams, the weights associated with links between nodes represent the approximated total amount of change at the destination node that was directly preceded by change at the source node. These values were calculated by integrating the influence of the source value (an intervention effect or a factor) to the target value.

Table 3.18   Interaction coefficients among symptoms (CBT). See text for description.

To / From	Anxiety	Cognitions	Mood	Work	Energy	E Sleep	M,L Sleep
Anxiety	-0.650	-0.337	0.315	-0.472	0.003	0.255	-0.151
Cognitions	0.823	-0.535	-1.498	-0.900	0.722	0.569	-0.693
Mood	0.379	-0.535	-0.636	-0.451	-0.397	-0.135	-0.199
Work	0.179	-0.363	-0.580	-0.622	0.112	0.094	-0.286
Energy	0.416	-0.343	0.635	0.126	-1.613	-0.214	0.101
E Sleep	-0.715	0.341	0.501	0.063	0.864	-1.023	0.480
M,L Sleep	-1.135	0.318	0.129	-0.402	1.821	-0.048	-0.010

Table 3.19   Interaction coefficients among symptoms (DMI). See text for description.}}

To / From	Anxiety	Cognitions	Mood	Work	Energy	E Sleep	M,L Sleep
Anxiety	-2.980	-0.206	0.931	0.750	0.276	1.059	0.336
Cognitions	-0.508	-1.095	0.742	0.129	-0.104	-0.445	-0.146
Mood	-1.022	-0.048	-0.541	-0.373	-0.607	1.030	0.649
Work	1.163	0.450	-1.358	-1.474	-0.327	0.221	1.030
Energy	-0.526	-0.762	0.929	0.621	-0.551	-0.523	-0.481
E Sleep	1.094	-0.222	-0.667	-0.038	0.153	-0.746	-0.114
M,L Sleep	-1.658	-1.047	1.520	1.119	-0.383	0.161	-0.339

Tables 3.18 and 3.19 show the model's coefficients for the interactions among the symptom factors. Each column heading identifies a source symptom which acts upon a target symptom (identified by the heading of the row). The values of these tables reflect the optimized
5   coefficients and represent the strength of the interactions among the symptoms. Negative values indicate a positive source symptom acts to improve the target symptom (by reducing it's intensity) provided that the baseline of the source symptom is negative, whereas positive values of coefficients indicate the opposite. For example, in the case of the patients
10   who underwent DMI treatment (Table 3.19), the results indicate that improvement in mood tends to move in the opposite direction from the work symptom factor because of the negative sign (-). Improvement in mood also preceded improvement in work. The strength of this interaction, represented by its coefficient, was (-1.358).
15   The vertical axis shown in Figures 3-15 and 3-16} correspond to the half reduction time [weeks]. Supra-threshold values (i.e. above 0.15) for W_{ij} and U_i, connections among symptom factors and connecting the treatment (CBT or DMI) to each of the symptom factors, are shown in the sequence
20   diagrams, Figures 3-15 and 3-16, respectively.

Cognitive Behavioral Therapy
        The two main symptoms that improved during recovery in response to CBT treatment were (1) depressed mood and (2) cognitions. Anxiety and
25   energy were also improved by the direct effects of the intervention. Improved mood was followed by an improvement in work and a further improvement in cognitions. Improvements in sleep disturbances followed the improvement (reduction) in anxiety. This is shown graphically in Figure 3-15}, where supra-threshold W_{ij} and U_i are shown.
30   Referring now to Figure 3-15, a graphic representation of the sequence of symptom factors in recovery with Cognitive Behavioral Therapy treatment for the second order system. Vertical positions of the symptoms represent half-way-reduction time, arrows represent strong impacts and interactions, and corresponding numbers indicate the strength

of the impact or interaction.

Desipramine

The weight patterns captured the covariance of the symptom
5 improvements. For example, the weight pattern of anxiety showed that
it is affected by the mood and early sleep symptom factors. Early
sleep in turn receives its main input from anxiety. This implies a
circular connection, or interaction between the symptom factors.

As shown in in Figure 3-16, depressed mood, work and
10 interests, and energy were the first symptoms to improve after the
latency. Improvement in mood was followed by improvements in
cognitions, middle and late sleep, and anxiety. An analysis of the
coefficients in the DMI recovery model revealed more ``double links"
and recurrent connections than for CBT. When there are recurrent
15 connections, as soon as one or more symptoms begin to reduce, there
will be a large feedback causing the symptoms inside the loop to
reduce concurrently. In the current case, anxiety and early sleep were
doubly linked, and were also in a loop with depressed mood.

Referring now to Figure 3-16, a graphic representation of the
20 sequence of symptom factors in recovery with Desipramine treatment for
the second order model is illustrated. Vertical positions of the
symptoms represent half-way-reduction time, arrows represent
strong impacts and interactions, and corresponding numbers indicate the
strength of the impact or interaction. Dotted arrows show the
25 interactions that operate in loops.

Additional Treatment Effects Due to Model Parameters

The damping factor (parameter A_i in equation 3.6
reflects the model's tendency to slow down the speed of change of the
30 symptom factor value. Optimized values for cognitive behavioral
therapy and desipramine treatment are shown in Table 3.20. A clear
finding in the baseline and the decay rate and latency parameters of the
model was that the symptom factor "work" improves strongly in
response to CBT treatment. This improvement was ascribed to a large
35 immediate effect at the onset of the treatment (large negative value

(-0.752) in Table 3.17. There was also a large negative self-interaction value which tends to drive the symptom to improve. The baseline (parameter B_j in equation 3.6) reflects pre-treatment symptom factor values. Optimized values for cognitive behavioral therapy and desipramine treatment are shown in Table 3.21.

Table 3.20   Damping Factors (units of week $^{-1}$)

Symptom Factor	CBT	DMI
Anxiety	1.33	2.89
Cognitions	1.91	2.00
Mood	1.21	1.70
Work	1.28	2.47
Energy	1.96	1.66
E Sleep	1.81	2.09
M,L Sleep	1.30	1.94

Table 3.21   Baseline (pre-treatment factor values)

Symptom Factor	CBT	DMI
Anxiety	0.239	-0.324
Cognitions	0.231	-0.668
Mood	0.380	-0.397
Work	-0.730	-0.062
Energy	0.062	0.016
E Sleep	-0.242	-0.542
M,L Sleep	-0.149	0.807

Limitations of Half Reduction Time Measure

The mean half reduction times of the raw data were correlated with the mean half reduction times predicted by the model. The results of the correlation, presented in Table 3.2 show that the correlation between

5   the raw data values and the model predicted values were significant for the combined CBT and DMI treatment groups ($p<0.01$), were highly significant for the CBT treatment group ($p<0.001$), and were not significant for the DMI treatment group. While these results pose problems in interpreting the model's predictions, there is sufficient

10   justification for believing that the half reduction times predicted by the model reflect the actual patient data. For example, the goodness of fit of the models to the data overall, are highly significant, showing that the models have predictive power for both CBT and DMI treatments. In addition, the lack of a significant correlation for

15   DMI may be a the result of deficiencies with the half reduction time measure on this data set. The half reduction time is only defined when a symptom improves and is present. Any correlation between lack of improvement in predicted and actual response for example, would result in no defined half reduction times and thus would be excluded

20   from the computed correlation coefficient. Other measures not restricted to time recovery would not suffer from this lack of robustness when recovery is not present.

Other Limitations

25   The current pilot study has many technical limitations. First, this model does not distinguish transient from permanent effects of treatment. Data subsequent to the termination of treatment were not available for either study (CBT or DMI). Second, the current method only partly distinguishes the {\em order} of the recovery from {\em

30   causal sequence} of the recovery. They are distinguished in the cases where a correlation method can distinguish them. For example, assume factors A, B, and C in Figure \ref{Fig:causalEffect} improved in this order. We cannot tell by just looking at the sequence whether A or B independently or jointly caused the C to improve. In an attempt to

35   differentiate sequence and causality we examined our correlation

coefficients using the following logic.

If the correlation coefficient reflecting the rate of change in the improvement rate of C indicated high correlation with a low value of A (as indicated by thick arrows) but not B, it suggests that only the
5 improvement in A caused the improvement in C. In the second order system, this can be evaluated by looking at interaction coefficients w_{ij} as follows: Consider a negative interaction coefficient with a large absolute value. During the time when the value of the source is lower than the mean, the second derivative of the target tends to
10 be negative. That reduces the first derivative of the target factor, and eventually the target factor decreases. However, the causality and correlation cannot be distinguished when the patterns of recovery of A and B are nearly identical, or when the interactions do not manifest themselves in a second differential form. A more fundamental
15 problem exists when there is an unmeasured factor D affecting A and after some time affecting C, thus creating a false correlation from A to C. This can be teased apart only by showing that fluctuation added at A affects B but fluctuation added at B does not affect A. This type of analysis is not incorporated in the current research. Third, the
20 current method does not incorporate stochastic analyses, which are commonly done in standard time series analysis. Incorporation of such more powerful methods requires a larger number of data than were available for the current research, and could be undertaken in future research.
25 Referring now to Figure 3-17, an illustration of sequence and causal relationships among patterns of recovery is shown. Three curves (A, B, and C) in the graph show examples of hypothetical recovery patterns. Thick arrows show sequential relationships that can be captured by the current method.

30

There was no difference seen in overall (severity) response times.

In both groups mood was the first symptom to improve and middle/late sleep was the last.

Symptom improvement sequence clustered differently in the two
35 treatments. The cognitive and mood symptoms (sad mood, thoughts of

guilt or suicide, and anxious mood) improved significantly earlier (p<0.05, two-tailed) in CBT than DMI.

The recovery pattern for cognitive behavioral therapy tends to group into two phases with a trend of a third phase, whereas for

5 desipramine, the recovery pattern does not group into phases. The desipramine response also shows a significant delayed effect, not found in the cognitive behavioral therapy response.

The results presented demonstrate that models of clinical recovery derived from data on different treatments predict

10 different recovery patterns. Patterns predicted from baseline values of patients treated with cognitive behavioral therapy showed early improvement in sad mood, thoughts of guilt or suicide, and anxious mood when compared to the recovery patterns predicted from the initial data of patients treated with DMI. Given that the overall severity

15 improved at the same rate in the two groups, but the cognitive factors did not, it may be beneficial to consider a combined treatment for patients who are at a high risk for suicide, as described below.

The analyses identified which symptoms are affected and

20 when they are affected in response to two different treatment interventions. This information could be utilized during treatment to monitor deviations from the standard time course. In the case of CBT, it may help to determine whether it is necessary for a specific symptom factor to improve before another, to identify the various

25 stages of the recovery process in CBT. For example, to recover in work and activities, the patient may first need to show improvement in mood and depressogenic cognitions.

Implications for the Treatment of Suicidal Patients

After the onset of treatment, the duration of time required to capture

30 change in all of the symptom factors is shorter for DMI (3.9 weeks in half reduction time) than that of CBT (5.0 weeks). However, crucial factors for suicidal patients are the cognitions (guilt and suicidal thoughts) and mood (sadness), and these factors are improved by CBT earlier (1.5 and 1.4 weeks respectively in half reduction time) in the

35 course of treatment than they are by DMI (3.5 and 2.1 weeks). Note

that the cognitions factor responded much earlier in the sequence when treated with CBT than DMI, and the cognitive symptoms (anxiety, guilt/suicide, and mood) all responded more quickly to CBT treatment ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that patients who report hopelessness and

5 suicidal thoughts may benefit from either CBT alone or a combined treatment of CBT and DMI. However, this interpretation is only made with respect to moderately depressed patients in a typical out-patient sample, and is not known for severe patients or hospitalized patients. No severely suicidal patients were included in the sample and those

10 that were had suicidal symptoms assured that they would not act on their thoughts during the study. Thus, this suggestion is speculative and awaits confirmation by further study.

Prediction of Outcome From Baseline

15

Two nonlinear methods are shown to both perform significantly better than multiple linear regression. Multiple linear regression is shown to perform at chance levels, while both a nonlinear neural network model and a nonlinear quadratic regression model perform at significantly

20 above chance levels. This suggests that (1) important non-linear relationships are present in the data, and (2) the particular nonlinear method employed is not as important as its ability to model complex relationships in the data. Since quadratic regression performs about as well as backpropagation, it appears to be the interaction among variables,

25 i.e. The nonlinearities, that are responsible for the increase in predictive performance. Consequentially, clinical researchers can use their current regression methods to reanalyze their existing data exploiting this new knowledge.

A predictive relationship (mapping) between

30 pre-treatment symptoms, either individually or collectively, and treatment outcome was investigated. One clinical data set was utilized under each of multiple linear regression, neural network modeling, and quadratic regression to determine the predictive value of each of the aforementioned methods.
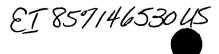
35 Three subproblems arose. First, the methods use different numbers of

parameters and thus there was an inequity in the comparison. Second, the nonlinear methods required more parameters than the linear methods. This created problems of over-fitting in cases of sparse data. Finally, the data contained irregularities resulting from
5   limitations of the instrument from which they were obtained.

RELATED RESEARCH

Problems with previous methods of analysis included: (1) the findings
10 on outcome prediction from baseline clinical symptoms are inconclusive and sometimes inconsistent among different researchers; (2) the majority of findings resultedfrom analyses using only linear methods; and (3) evidence exists for nonlinear relationships between clinical variables and outcome.
15 The studies used to arrive at the above problems had to (1) use HDRS symptoms or severity as a potential predictor and one of the following outcome measures to have comparable dependent variables: (a) final HDRS, (b) improvement in HDRS score (c) improvement ratio in HDRS or (d) a categorical measure based on these continuous measures; and (4)
20 use one of the following treatments to have comparable independent variables: (a) cognitive behavioral therapy; (b) desipramine; or (c) fluoxetine; (2) use short term placebo controls to show clear effects; and (3) be evenly distributed demographically (age, sex, etc.) to reduce bias in the comparison sample.
25

Summary of Findings
Table 4.1summarizes reports (1986-1994) of attempts to predict outcome from baseline clinical variables. The clinical variables considered here as potential predictors of outcome were
30 either (a) one or more of the 21 baseline HDRS individual item severity scores or (b) the baseline HDRS total severity score (overall depression severity). These clinical variables are listed in the first column of Table 4.1 under the heading Symptoms. The remainder of the columns identify the treatment administered as part
35 of the various research studies. Each entry in Table 4.1

is an index into Table 4.2, which gives the reference. When a clinical variable was reported to be predictive of outcome (p<0.05), the number identifying the study is underline. When the clinical variable was found to be not-significant in predicting outcome, it

5   is not underlined. A blank entry indicates that the predictive power of the clinical symptom was not reported.

Of 19 accounts in which the predictive value of severity was evaluated, 11 found it to be predictive with statistical significance. (For the purpose of maintaining readability, citations are not

10   included in this subsection. To find references, consult Table 4.1 and Tableb 4.2. As for individual symptoms, 3 of 13 findings reported found depressed mood to be a predictor, 2 of 2 for late insomnia, 2 of 8 for somatic--gastrointestinal, 1 of 11 for work and interests, 2 of 14 for retardation, 2 of 12 for middle insomnia, 1 of 13 for weight change, 1 of 7

15   for insight, 1 of 10 for hypochondriasis, and 1 of 14 for agitation. No other independent symptoms were found to be significant predictors in the literature considered here.

Focusing on each treatment, it can be seen that: amitriptyline (Ami) increased overall severity (1 of 1), depressed mood (1 of 2), middle

20   insomnia (1 of 1), somatic--gastrointestinal (1 of 1) and hypochondriasis (1 of 1), predicted poorer response whereas increased severity in insight (1 of 1) predicted better response; for imipramine (IMI) greater overall severity (3 of 4) predicted both better response (2 of 3) and poorer response (1 of 3), greater depressed mood (1 of 2)

25   predicted poorer response, greater late insomnia (1 of 2), and greater retardation (1 of 3) predicted better response; for tranylcypromine (Tran) greater depressed mood, greater retardation, and greater weight change predicted better response, while greater middle insomnia and greater late insomnia predicted poorer response, (1 of 1 each, from

30   the same paper); for electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) greater overall severity (1 of 1), greater depressed mood (1 of 1), greater work and interests (1 of 2), greater agitation (1 of 2), and greater somatic--gastrointestinal (1 of 1) predicted poorer response; for interpersonal therapy (IPT), greater overall severity predicted poorer

35   response (1 of 1) -- individual symptoms were not reported; and for

maprotiline (Map) greater overall severity predicted both better and poor response (1 of 2 each), individual symptoms not reported; and for levoprotiline (Lev) greater overall severity predicted poorer response; individual symptoms were not reported (1 of 1).

5   Overall severity at baseline was found to be predictive throughout many treatment studies. At least one study for each treatment found overall severity at baseline to be significant except desipramine (0 of 2), clomipramine (0 of 2), fluoxetine (0 of 1), and cognitive behavioral therapy (0 of 1). However, baseline severity was not a consistent

10   predictor of outcome, being confirmed only by 11 of 19 accounts (from thirteen studies). Much less predictive reliability at baseline was found in individual symptoms.

Severity as a Predictor

15   Baseline HDRS severity alone was found to be inconclusive as a predictor of general response to treatment because it was found both to be a significant predictor of response and also to not be a significant predictor of response. Examples from the literature follow.

20   Of thirteen studies, nineteen accounts of tests for baseline HDRS severity as a predictor of outcome were reported, eleven accounts (in seven of the studies) found baseline severity to be statistically significant {Katz:87,Pande:88,Sotsky:91,Vallejo:91,Filip:93,Hoencamp:94,Katon:94}

25   and eight accounts (in six studies) {Kocsis:89,Nagayama:91,Bowden:93,Hinrichsen:93,Johnson:94,Joyce:94} did not.

Of the eleven accounts that found overall severity to predict response, five found greater severity to predict better response and

30   six found greater severity to predict poor response to treatment. Vallejo et al. {Vallejo:91} found the more severe the depression (baseline HDRS total), the better the outcome (percent reduction in HDRS) in a study of 116 out-patients treated with imipramine (N=89) or phenelzine (N=27), evaluated at outcome, 6 weeks ($r=0.22$, $p=0.015$) and also at

35   a 6 month follow-up ($r=0.20$, $p=0.029$). Higher baseline HDRS

severity was also found to indicate increased chance of recovery by Hoencamp et al. {Hoencamp:94}, in a three-phase sequential medication study (maprotiline ($N=119$), lithium augmentation/brofaromine($N=51$), maprotiline and lithium ($N=22$)), ($B=0.31$, $p<0.001$).

5   In contrast, severity was not found to be significant when the clinical efficacy of fluoxetine and desipramine was compared in a double blind parallel group study of major depressive disorder (including both in-patients and out-patients) \cite{Bowden:93}. The clinical responses of severely ill patients (those with baseline HDRS

10 scores of 24 or greater) were compared to moderately depressed patients (those with baseline HDRS scores less than 24). No significant differences were found between the drugs when compared across severity categories and no significant differences between the two drugs were found when compared within severity

15 categories.

Baseline severity did not significantly correlate with percent improvement or final severity score in 104 patients who participated in a study designed to examine predictors of short-term response to desipramine and clomipramine \cite{Joyce:94}, and baseline severity

20 was not found to be a significant predictor of outcome at the 4-month follow-up in patients with major depression; antidepressant treatment was not specified {Katon:94}.

This lack of clear predictive results for severity is not surprising because severity is nonspecific with respect to symptoms. Different

25 syndromes of equal overall severity may respond to different treatments. For example, Elkin et al.{Elkin:89} was only able to find significant differential treatment response to cognitive behavioral therapy, interpersonal therapy (IPT), imipramine with clinical management and placebo with clinical management in a

30 secondary analysis. When the population was analyzed based on baseline severity, those patients who were less severely depressed (HDRS score totals less than 20) showed no significant difference in their response to treatment. The more severely depressed (HDRS score totals greater than or equal to 20) responded best to imipramine with

35 clinical management and worst to placebo with clinical management.

Response to CBT and IPT were in between, but closer to imipramine with clinical management, with the response to IPT better than the response to CBT.

5   In addition,   the lack of reliability in   baseline severity as a predictor of outcome could also be due to different outcome measures (see below),   differences that   result from treatment-specific responses, population differences, such as   demographics, as well as the independent variables chosen to be tested as predictors.

10   Individual Symptoms as Predictors of Outcome

None of the studies that met the criteria for comparison found individual symptoms to be predictive of outcome. On the other hand, four   related studies found seven symptoms to be predictive {White:86,Katz:87,Pande:88,McGrath:92}. Of these, depressed mood
15   was the most frequent and occurred in four of the findings; middle and late insomnia   occurred each occurred twice; and gastrointestinal--somatic, work and interests, retardation, agitation, hypochondriasis, weight   loss, and insight each occurred once (see Table 4.1). In addition, individual symptoms were, however, predictive of
20   outcome in an amitriptyline study of depression Sauer et al. {Sauer:86} found moderate late insomnia (p=.035) and poor insight (p=0.025) predicted a better response whereas severe middle insomnia (p=0.031), gastrointestinal symptoms (p=0.046) and hypochondriasis (p=0.017) predict poorer response (N=50).
25   For example, prediction of outcome from symptoms has demonstrated in atypical depression. Atypical depression is characterized   by depressions where a group of symptoms (behaviors) are the opposite of what is commonly observed in typical depressions. Features of atypical depression   are oversleeping, overeating, severe lack of
30   energy, and pathologic rejection sensitivity. McGrath et al. (1992) {McGrath:92} showed that atypical depression patients showed a clear and consistent pattern of poorer response to imipramine.

In addition, when over-sleeping and leaden paralysis were both present, the these two symptoms (in addition to the atypical symptoms)
35   significantly predicted less improvement with imipramine.   In this

example, the symptoms of atypical depression predict poor response to imipramine. The dynamics of atypical depression seem to indicate nonlinearity.   No one symptom accounted the poorer response to imipramine, severity in any one of the four atypical symptoms
5   (oversleeping, overeating, severe anergy, and pathologic rejection sensitivity) produces the effect {McGrath:92}. Furthermore, the presence of more than one symptom does not increase the differential effect.

10   Outcome Measure
       Apparent inconsistencies may be due to the outcome measure used {Filip:93}. The findings of Filip et al., {Filip:93} and Popescu et al. {Popescu:93} provide an example of (a) a case, within one study, where results are significant using one outcome measure and   not significant
15   using a different outcome measure and   (b) a case where using   one outcome measure the results of two studies are   consistent, but using a different outcome measure their results are inconsistent. They report that baseline HDRS is predictive of outcome, i.e., when outcome is defined as final HDRS score   (either levoprotiline or maprotiline,
20   N=55, r=0.51,p<0.0002;   N=108, F=5.66,   p<0.01), respectively. However, when outcome is defined as percent change in HDRS,   their findings are inconsistent. Filip et al. found that baseline HDRS was not a significant predictor of outcome, Popescu et al., found that the less severe patients (those with lower baseline
25   HDRS scores) were more likely to respond to [an unspecified] tricyclic antidepressant treatment] (N=108, F=20.12, p<0.01).   Although Filip et al. argue that the final score is most consistent with the physicians judgment, in an attempt to prevent this potential inconsistency, the results were compared to only to those results that were
30   obtained using the same outcome measure used in the data, i.e. percent change in HDRS for the purposes of review of significant findings reported in Table 4.1.
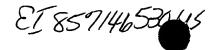
       Evidence of Nonlinearities
35   The specific findings are reviewed that ledto the belief

nonlinear relationships may exist between clinical symptoms, treatment, and outcome and therefore should be explored in the attempt to predict outcome from baseline clinical symptoms. In particular, the studies reviewed in this section suggest the presence of two

5 different types of nonlinear relationships which may help to explain the inconclusive and sometimes inconsistent results found in the literature. The first type of nonlinear relationship would be differences observed across different treatments, indicating treatment--specific responses for subsets of symptoms. The second

10 type of nonlinear relationship would be nonlinear relationships observed within a given treatment. Evidence for both these types of nonlinearities exist in the data. If the relationships were linear, either within or across these treatment groups, a separate linear model would be needed for each one. Using a nonlinear model, it may

15 be possible to capture relationships in a single model given some overlap of effects. Also, a nonlinear model would be able to capture curvilinear relationships between symptoms and outcome for a given treatment.

20 Nonlinearities Across Treatments

When one looks at symptoms (across a row) of Table 4.1, it appears that for any given symptom, symptoms in general, i.e., symptoms independent of the treatment administered, were not found to be significant predictors of outcome. In contrast, when one looks within

25 a given treatment (down a column), it appears that treatments may have specific symptom profiles (combinations of symptoms) that when taken together are significant predictors of outcome for that treatment.

In a treatment-specific response relationship, the treatment acts as a switch, selecting for a set of symptoms which may be different from

30 those symptoms that another treatment might select. In a response within a given treatment, the response may indicate effective ranges of symptom severity for which the treatment is effective.

For example, looking across symptoms, we see inconsistent findings for many of the symptoms. Increased severity of depressed mood, depending

35 on treatment, was found to positively predict outcome for

tranylcypromine, to negatively predict outcome for amitriptyline, imipramine, and electroconvulsive therapy, and to not be predictive of outcome for S-adenosyl methionine, imipramine, desipramine, clomipramine, fluoxetine,and cognitive behavioral therapy. Increased

5 severity of middle insomnia predicted poor response for amitriptyline and tranylcypromine, but not predictive of response for any other treatment reported. Increased late insomnia predicted favorable response for imipramine, poor response for tranylcypromine, and did not predict response for all other treatments reported. Greater

10 severity in the work and interests item predicted poor response for ECT only; increased severity of retardation predicted favorable response for both imipramine and tranylcypromine; increased severity in the somatic--gastrointestinal symptom predicted poor response for only amitriptyline and ECT; increased hypochondriasis predicted poor

15 response for tranylcypromine, and lack of insight (increased severity of insight symptom) predicted positive response for amitriptyline only. In most of the findings reported, symptoms were not predictive of outcome. When symptoms were reported to predict outcome, most were not consistent across treatments in that the same symptom predicted

20 opposite effects.

Reports of attempts to predict outcome from baseline HDRS symptoms were focused on. Therefore, other reports showing consistent results using other instruments which were excluded from review for reasons of comparability. Thus, the entries in the

25 table under each treatment may not be representative of the entire literature and further treatment-specific consistent patterns might be apparent with a broader survey.

In Table 4.11, it will be shown that the interaction effects of severity and thoughts of guilt and suicide (Cog.Severity), severity and

30 anxiety (Anxiety.Severity), and severity and early sleep disturbance (ESleep.Severity) seem to be highly significant for the prediction of outcome to a heterogeneous sample of patients treated with desipramine, fluoxetine, or cognitive behavioral therapy. Furthermore, nonlinear interaction effects yield the most significant results for these data.

35 In addition, backpropagation with treatment included in the input variables
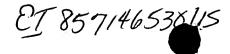
gives the most highly significant result across these data. The treatment type may select for overlapping syndromes responsive to a particular drug or psychotherapy. The interaction terms suggest different syndromes such as learned helplessness or anxious depression.

5 Crossing the nonspecific independent variable severity with a specific symptom factor may help to identify these syndromes. We did not have the data available to validate the results, but the reports reviewed in this chapter indicate that different symptoms may predict outcome to different treatments. For example, the combination of severity,

10 late insomnia and retardation may predict response to imipramine; the combination of depressed mood, middle and late insomnia and change in weight may predict response to tranylcypromine; and the combination of severity depressed mood, work and interests, and somatic--gastrointestinal may predict response to electroconvulsive

15 therapy.

Nonlinearities Within Treatment Response

Nonlinearities which are induced by U-shaped relationships between symptoms and treatment response are considered herein.

20 Joyce et al. {Joyce:89} reported that those with an intermediate level of severity respond best to treatment with tricyclic antidepressants. Thus, those with either very mild depressions or very severe depressions do not respond well, suggesting a nonlinear relationship within the tricyclic antidepressant drug

25 family.

Furthermore, endogenous depressions have been reported to respond better to tricyclic antidepressants than nonendogenous depressions Joyce:89,Paykel:72,Raskin:76}. There are conflicting findings {Joyce:89,Simpson:76} which could be explained by curvilinear

30 relationships between endogenous symptoms and amitriptyline response {Joyce:89,Aboul-Saleh:83}.

Neurotransmitter metabolite data from blood, urine, or plasma was not included in this study. However, Samson et al. {Samson:94} found both high and low urinary 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol (MHPG) levels to be

35 characteristic of late insomnia, and postulated that this may indicate a
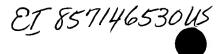
nonlinear relationship between symptoms of depression and underlying biochemical abnormalities.

5 The aforementioned studies suggest that the statistical significance of severity is inconsistent through the literature reviewed, however, it appears that one or more of the following reasons may be contributing factors to this inconsistency: (1) statistical effects of different populations; (2) different outcome measures; (3) comparison across treatment groups which might be selective for subpopulations with

10 different symptom profiles but the same overall baseline HDRS severity score; (4) curvilinear relationships between independent and dependent variables. Thus, inconsistencies in the predictive value of severity appear to be largely due to differences between studies. In addition, the data summarized above suggests a consistent response to different drugs. A

15 broader review would be necessary to substantiate these results.

METHODS

There are three categories of methods presented in this section.

20

The procedure used in the comparison of linear and nonlinear methods was as follows: First independent (input) was selected and dependent (output) variables. These were the same seven symptom factors and severity that were used in discussed above.r:pattern}.

25 There were two reasons for this choice: (a) to maintain consistency with Study 1 above, which would facilitate integration of these results; and (b) the data available were too few for each of the HDRS items to be allocated separate independent variables without over-fitting the data. Next the best population

30 distribution to assume was selected. The backpropagation algorithm and multiple linear regression was applied to the original data and to data that were rescaled based on normal, exponential, and gamma distributions. Finally, seven data sets were created, three from the individual treatment groups (CBT, DMI, and FLU), and four

35 combinations: drug only (DMI and FLU) and all treatments (CBT, DMI,

and FLU), both with and without an independent variable to indicate treatment. Also described below are the methods used to address the three subproblems mentioned above, i.e., different numbers of parameters in the models, dependent on sample size, and irregularities in the data.
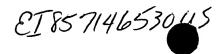
5

The Models

Three mathematical models: neural network; multiple linear regression; and quadratic regression were investigated.

10

Backpropagation

To evaluate the ability of a nonlinear neural network method to predict response to treatment from a set of symptoms and treatment, a network algorith called backpropagation was chosen

15 {BryHo:69,Werbos:74,Rummelhart:86}. The backpropagation algorithm is based on gradient descent, which changes the weights of the network to learn a mapping between input and output vectors. A backpropagation network was chosen for the following reasons: it is a widely used and accepted neural network architecture; the software is

20 readily available from multiple sources; and it is simple to use and relatively easy to interpret. Standard and accepted techniques were utilized in order to make the analyses easily reproducible by others.

A three layer backpropagation network model with two hidden units

25 was used in this study. The input layer had one of four configurations (i.e. number of input nodes) dependent the data set (discussed in Section sample size}. For all data sets without inclusion of the treatment as one of the inputs, the number of input nodes were eight. These were for the seven symptom factors and the severity of symptoms. When treatment

30 information was included, each treatment was allocated an individual input node which would be set to either zero or one, for patient received the treatment or patient did not receive the treatment, respectively. No patient received more than one treatment in any of the three studies. Thus for the data set that combined the two drug studies, the number of

35 input nodes were ten. The seven symptom factors, the severity, and the two

additional nodes allocated to flag the treatment the patient received. The study that combined all three treatment groups had eleven input nodes. The output layer had one node, representing the response of the patient. The transformation   function at the output layer was chosen   to be

5   linear, as that   gave the best results. In a few instances, where noted, a logistic function was used on output. The logistic output function, being the exception, is noted when presented, and therefore, unless specified, the linear function can be assumed. The input and output representations are described in Section: Data Representation.

10   The threshold at the output node was set to 0.5.   Activation above threshold was interpreted as predicting   a responder, and activation below as predicting a non-responder. The prediction was then compared with the calculated category from the data to determine whether the network's prediction was correct.

15   Referring now to Figure 4-1 nonlinear mapping of   backpropagation, each hidden node finds a direction in the input space (illustrated by an arrow perpendicular to a small square piece) to which the output is sensitive to. The output of each hidden node goes through a nonlinear output function before being weighted and summed at the output node.

20   In   the   nonlinear   backpropagation neural   network   model,   the backpropagation algorithm was expected to find any subset of inputs that were predictive of the outcome and modify its connection weights in order to map their values to the predicted outcome, even when the relationship between them is nonlinear. In a backpropagation network,

25   this is made possible in the following manner. Hidden nodes in a backpropagation network find important subspaces which are determined by input weight patterns (see Figure~\ref{Fig:BPmap}). Output values of hidden nodes are transformed by a nonlinear function, and the degree of nonlinearity depends on the magnitude of the input weights

30   and the size of the bias input to each hidden node. These inputs are weighted and summed at the output node, where another nonlinear output function is applied.

       Regression coefficients were calculated by a standard procedure: LU decomposition with Gaussian elimination using partial pivots.
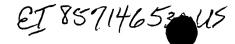
35   Backpropagation Training Procedure

Training a backpropagation network model involves two steps. The first adjusts model parameters which determine the behavior of the training algorithm. The second specifies the criteria for termination of training. Based on preliminary tests, the following parameter
5   settings were chosen for all trials: the learning rates of the weight modification rules were set to 0.01 (i.e., for both input to hidden and hidden to output); the momentum, which determines the effect of the previous weight change on the current weight change, was set to 0.9; the squashing function at the output node was set to
10 be linear; the temperature for the squashing function was set to 1; and training was terminated after 10,000 epochs. See {Hertz:91} for definitions of these terms within the backpropagation framework.

15 Linear and Quadratic Regression

The linear regression and quadratic regression analyses were carried out using the S-Plus statistical package (Statistical Sciences, 1993). The quadratic regression methods used the same regression algorithm, however, a backwards stepwise procedure, also part of the S-Plus
20 package was used to adjust the number of parameters in the model. Quadratic regression included a new set of independent variables. The additional variables represented two-way interactions between symptoms. Then the backward stepwise regression was used to select the best model. The backwards stepwise regression procedure
25 starts with the model that includes all variables (parameters) for each symptom and all two-way interactions. Then it systematically removes parameters that have the smallest affect on the performance of the model. This was repeated, in our case, until the model size was equal to the size of the comparison model (see below). In doing this,
30 the linear model became nonlinear (quadratic), but the method (regression) remained unchanged.

Compensation for Different Numbers of Parameters

Different models have different numbers of parameters. This makes
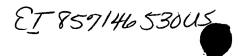35 the comparison biased in favor of the model with more parameters; the

model with more parameters will predict more of the variance in the data. To achieve equality across the different models tested we used three approaches. One approach constructed a measure of the proportion of variance explained by the model (r^2), proportion of variance,

5 which was used to estimate the performance expected by chance. The second approach used the chi square and F statistics, goodness of fit statistic. These methods, explicitly and implicitly, take into account the number of free parameters in the models. The third approach used backward stepwise quadratic regression to systematically limit the

10 number of predictive variables and thus ensure that both models had the same number of parameters for the comparison. When we compared the results to multiple linear regression, we chose a model of size 11, when compared to backpropagation, a model of size 21 was chosen. This provided an unbiased way to account for differences in performance.

15

Compensation for Sample Size

Another subproblem was that nonlinear methods require more data because typically they have more parameters to estimate the same predictive performance and power. More parameters mean more degrees

20 of freedom, which means more data is required to compensate for over-fitting. A combination of two approaches was used. One approach combined the data from three treatment studies, cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT), desipramine (DMI), and fluoxetine (FLU). This produced a larger data set, which typically increases the power of the model to

25 predict outcome. The drawback of this approach is that the data are no longer homogeneous by treatment, which can obscure the results. The other approach treated each study separately. This yields more reliable results, but the smaller data sets decrease the predictive power of the model. For completeness, seven data sets of independent variables were created.

30 Five of these consisted of treatment groups or combinations: One for each of the different treatments (CBT, DMI, FLU), one for a drug only (DMI+FLU), one for all treatments (CBT+DMI+FLU). Two additional groups were created by adding a dummy variable (TxFlag) that indicated which treatment the patient received: drug with treatment flag

35 (DMI+FLU+TxFlag) and all treatments with treatment flag

(CBT+DMI+FLU+TxFlag).

Compensation for Irregularities in Data

Two different prediction algorithms, multiple regression and backpropagation were applied to each of the four sets of untransformed and transformed data on the combined data with treatment flags. This preliminary analysis indicated the exponential transformation yielded the best results for these data. Consequently, comparison of all three methods (multiple regression (MR), backpropagation (BP) and quadratic regression (QR) was completed using the exponentially transformed data. Table 4.3 shows the models and transformations.

Table 4.3   Three population distribution assumptions were analyzed. For each of these four data sets (one untransformed, three transformed), multivariate regression (MR) and backpropagation (BP) models were applied. The transformation that resulted in the best performance was chosen for subsequent analyses.

Method	Transformation			
MR	Raw	Norm	Exp	Gam
BP	Raw	Norm	Exp	Gam
QR			Exp	

Data Representation

This section describes the input and output data representation of the independent and dependent variables used in this study. The input data were seven symptom factors: Mood, Cognitions, Early Sleep Disturbance, Middle and Late Sleep Disturbance, Work and Interests, Energy and Retardation, and Anxiety. In addition, there was a variable for Severity, and in some instances, additional variables indicating the treatment received. In the case of the quadratic regression, input variables included some subset of those already discussed in addition to single variables representing the interaction of two symptoms.

In addition to the encoding of the data and any other transforms, such as the exponential transformation discussed in the previous section, z-score transformations were applied to both independent and

dependent variables, as the last step of preprocessing.

The same symptom factors were utilized for two
reasons.   First, maintaining consistency with will
facilitate integration of these findings later.   Second, although
5   ideally all 21 HDRS items and severity would have been analyzed,
enough data ws not available to prevent over-fitting.

Input Representation
Table 4.4 identifies the input data (independent variables).
10   It consisted of: (a) seven symptom factors derived from the   twenty-one
Hamilton item scores measured prior to treatment; (b) the total for the
pre-treatment Hamilton   scores and (c) the treatment the patient
received (desipramine, fluoxetine, or cognitive behavioral therapy).

15   Table 4.4   Independent Variables - Inputs to the models. The symptom factors and Hamilton
Total are the raw (untransformed) values as represented on the HDRS scale. The values for the
treatments represent binary flags indicating the treatment the patient received. Only one of the
treatment flags can have the value of 1 for any given patient.

Input Description	Raw Scale Value
Desipramine Treatment	0, 1
Cognitive Behavioral Therapy Treatment	0, 1
Fluoxetine Treatment	0, 1
Symptom Factors [1..7]	0, 1, 2, 3, 4
Beginning Hamilton total	[0..65]

20

25

Output Representation
The target output data to   be predicted (the dependent variable) was
the change in the severity of the symptoms after treatment. We chose
30   the raw percent improvement (outcome) as the output since this measure
is commonly reported. The computation for the outcome measure
(percent change is in HDRS total) is given by

35

$$\%\Delta HDRS = \frac{HDRS_{baseline} - HDRS_{final}}{HDRS_{baseline}} * 100 \qquad (4.1)$$

where Δ HDRS is the response to treatment in terms of
5   percent change, HDRS$_{baseline}$ is the baseline (pre-treatment) HDRS
total score, and $HDRS_{final}$ is the ending (post-treatment) HDRS
total score.
    For DMI, the HDRS $_{final}$ value is week 6, for CBT it is week 16.

10   Selection of Population Distribution Function
    Irregularities in the data arise from limitations of instruments of
this type to account for underlying probability distribution
information. The best of three normalization functions that were applied
to the data were selected.
15   The Hamilton Depression Rating Scale, as other psychiatric scales of
depression, is an ordinal scale. It consists of 21 different and
independent ratings that are arbitrarily assigned a fixed numerical
value (see Equation 4.1). The higher numbers on these scales represent
more of a quantity: e.g., helplessness, energy, suicidal thoughts, etc.
20   However, the numeric quantity to assign these scale values is not well
defined. Typically, these numerical values are used in quantitative
analysis of psychiatric data {Hamilton:60,Hamilton:67,Filip:93}. Only these
values could have been used, however, a more conservative approach was
taken. Statistics based on these data and assigned new scale values which
25   are invariant with regard to the numbers assigned on the original scale
were used. Such techniques are commonplace in the statistical literature
{Lehmann:86} and have also been used by mathematical psychologists
{Luce:71}. This technique produces correct results independent of the
numerical values of the HDRS items.
30   A derived scale was constructed from the cumulative
population probability distribution of each of the HDRS items. This
distribution is invariant to the underlying scale values because the
cumulative population distribution for each of the items does not
depend on the numbers assigned to an item. It measures the proportion

of items in the population which have a score less than or equal to the given score. Functions of the distributional scores are the only invariants with regard to arbitrary monotone changes of the underlying scale {Luce:71,Luce:90}.

5   The cumulative distribution of each item represents a sample with a fixed distribution. Three distributions were chosen: (1) exponential (Exp); (2) gamma (Gam); and (3) Gaussian (Norm). The parameters of the gamma and Gaussian distributions were chosen so that the means and variances coincided with the distribution of the data.

10   The derived scale values were chosen to be the inverse of these constructed distribution functions at the HDRS item values. These derived scale values are the values of the hypothesized random variables which match the probabilities obtained from the population distribution function. This transformation removed the compression

15 inherent near probability one of the population distribution function and constructs a theoretically motivated scale from ordinal data. The procedures used for these transformations are described in Appendix Transformations, Luciano, U.S> Provisional Patent Applic. S.N. 60/

      The original data of (N=99) input-output pairs (see Section

20 Data Representation) were transformed to create four datasets. One remained untransformed (Raw) while three were transformed: exponential (Exp); gamma (Gam); and Gaussian (Norm). The same transformations were applied to individual scores for both pre- and post-treatment measurements. The total (severity) scores were

25 calculated from the transformed values. Multiple linear regression and backpropagation were then applied to each of these four datasets. The dataset which yielded the best performance was then used in all subsequent analyses.

      Preliminary analysis indicated better results with {\em continuous}

30 outcome as the target of the prediction, i.e. (the percent change in the patient) than with predictions of {\em categorical} outcome, i.e. the patient recovered or did not recover. Most subsequent detailed analysis therefore used a continuous output measure, although some categorical results are presented below. Preliminary analysis also

35 indicated that the exponential transformation yielded the best results

for the neural network model. Consequently, the exponential transformation was used in all subsequent analysis.

Referring now to Figure 4-2, a schematic representation of the effect of normalizing transformations on reducing nonlinearity of
5 score-to-output relationships (or skewedness of distributions) is illustrated. In the transformation, the area under the curve is preserved. The transformation redistributes the position of the data values along the x-axis in order to preserve the areas under the curve between adjacent
10 scores values while redistributing these data to best approximate a normal distribution. Equal areas under the curve between percentiles map to equal areas under the curve in the new distribution.

Comparison with Chance Performance
15 The mathematical foundation for the proportion of variance expected by chance given the number of parameters and the number of samples is approximated by dividing the number of parameters in the model by the number of samples. As an auxiliary verification of this estimation, we used S-Plus to generate random (chance) data N=99, normally distributed
20 (mean = 0, standard deviation = 1) which was then used in place of the the actual data (symptom, treatment and outcome data) and then tested the predictive power of the model on these chance data. A backpropagation network with the same configuration used in the above described analysis (two hidden units) was used and trained and tested by the network on these
25 random (chance) data. The purpose of this auxiliary test was to verify chance performance on chance data as a null hypothesis.

Interpretation of Backpropagation Weights
While it is clinically useful to be able to predict outcome, it is
30 even more useful to know to what degree each of the symptoms contributes to the prediction. The symptoms of the backpropagation network model were ranked by influence on the response pattern. This gives a rough indication of the most important symptoms. Because backpropagation is nonlinear, a linear measure of the influence of a
35 symptom (input variables) on the response does not exist. As a rough

approximation, we assumed that the transfer functions at the neural network nodes operate in their linear ranges.

For each symptom, the influence was determined and ranked as follows:

5

1.   The weight from the symptom (input) unit to Hidden Unit 1 was multiplied by the weight from hidden unit 1 to the output.

2.   The weight from the symptom (input) unit to Hidden unit 2 was multiplied by the weight from hidden unit 2 to the output.

10   3.   The symptom's influence is the sum of the products obtained in steps 1 and 2.

The symptoms then were ranked by their unsigned values. A threshold equal to 20% of the maximum unsigned value was computed. Symptoms

15   that fell below this threshold were assumed to be not significant. Negative values were interpreted to inhibit a positive response or indicate nonresponse.

In this section it is concluded that the relationships between

20   pre-treatment symptoms and outcome are nonlinear because the nonlinear methods explain more variance than the linear method, and that it is allowance for nonlinearity in the method rather than the specific nonlinear method that is important in obtaining the better results. We also show that outcome can be predicted, but weakly. The

25   proportions of variance explained by the nonlinear models are highly significant, but low. The symptoms with the highest predictive power in these data were mood, severity, and middle and late sleep disturbances. Finally, the choice of the exponential form as a distribution function is validated.

30

Nonlinear Method Yields a Better Model

The performance of the linear regression and nonlinear models was compared using an r to z transformation. This method was used to determine if the correlation coefficients of the two models are

35   significantly different from each other. Table 4.5 demonstrated that the

nonlinear regression method (Backpropagation) explains significantly more of the variance in these data than the linear regression (Multiple Regression) model (p<0.0001). Therefore, the nonlinear regression method (Backpropagation) accounts for significantly more of the proportion of variance in the data than can be attributed to chance. Table 4.7 shows the significance (p < 0.0001) of the goodness of fit of the backpropagation model to the full test and training set (N=99). The goodness of fit test was performed on the prediction results obtained from analysis of the full data set (N=99).

Table 4.5   Result of r to z transformation and comparison of significance of differences of the goodness of fit for the linear multiple regression model versus the nonlinear backpropagation model. N=99

Comparison of Difference in Goodness of Fit		
System	r	z-score
Multiple Regression	0.373	0.392
Backpropagation	0.748	0.969
Normal deviate		-3.716
p		0.0002

Table 4.6   Comparison of significance for linear and nonlinear methods. Significance values calculated using F-statistic for linear method and method based on maximum likelihood for nonlinear methods. TxFlag indicated that the data set included a flag indicating the treatment the patient received, * indicated p<0.05, ns = not significant (and significance level was not listed in the chart), x indicates the analysis could not be performed (not enough data), ** indicates detailed analysis in text, r is Pearson's r, r^2 is the proportion of variance explained by the model, p was computed using the appropriate goodness of fit test.

Comparison of Goodness of Fit and Significance			
Data set (N = # Samples)	Multiple Regression (linear) r^2 $(p <)$	Backpropagation (nonlinear) r^2 $(p <)$	Quadratic Regression (nonlinear) r^2 $(p <)$
CBT (13)	.8810 (ns)	.4642 (ns)	x
DMI (49)	.1548 (ns)	.5685 (.005*)	.5399 (.01*)
FLU (37)	.1549 (ns)	.5510 (.079)	.8696 (.005*)
DMI + FLU (86)	.0895 (ns)	.3147 (.05*)	.4318 (.00043*)
DMI + FLU + CBT (99) **	.0917 (ns)	.3156 (.025*)	.3875 (.0005*)
DMI + FLU + TxFlag (86)	.1395 (ns)	.5601 (.0001*)	.4232 (.00081*)
DMI + FLU + CBT + TxFlag (99)	.1389 (ns)	.4389 (.0005*)	.4062 (.0005*)

5   Table 4.7   Summary of results for the full training set. The table shows percent correct, Root Mean Square (RMS), and Proportion of Variance (r^2) for the backpropagation network with two hidden nodes. Input data were factor scores, raw or transformed using an exponential function (Exp). Output data were categorical or continuous. Momentum was 0.9, learning rate was 0.01. n/a = not applicable.
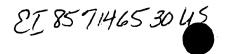
10

Transformation	% correct	RMS	r^2	F	p
Categorical output with logistic function at output					
Raw	81.8	0.367	0.4646	2.2819	0.003013
Exp	75.8	0.368	0.4587	2.2284	0.003840
Continuous-normalized output with logistic function at output					
Raw	n/a	0.169	0.4533	2.1804	0.004770
Exp	n/a	0.113	0.6661	5.2459	0.000002

15

Nonlinear Methods Significantly Better Than Chance

20   As an auxiliary confirmation, a backpropagation was run on random data. The proportion of variance (r^2) obtained were slightly lower than our theoretical calculation. The r^2 obtained from predicting random variables was 0.2454, whereas r^2 expected was 0.2727. Table 4.6 shows that in all but the case
25 of fluoxetine alone (FLU), the backpropagation model was significantly better than chance. The quadratic regression model also performed significantly better than chance. For the cognitive behavioral therapy data (CBT), it was not possible to run the quadratic regression model because there were too many parameters (21) for the
30 number of samples (13). In all other data sets, the quadratic regression model was significantly better than chance. In contrast, the linear method performed at chance for all data sets.

Results Independent of Particular Nonlinear Model

35   This section shows that multiple linear regression on individual symptom factors was not significant, whereas multiple linear

regression on the nonlinear data, which included symptom interaction terms, (quadratic regression) was significant. Table 4.8, shows the poor results obtained from individual symptom data alone, Table 4.9 shows the improved results from the quadratic

5 regression model of comparable size to the backpropagation model. This suggests nonlinearities should be included either in the method or the data to improve performance, and that the improved performance is not a result of bias introduced by more parameters in one of the models.

10 Table 4.8   Multiple Regression on Combined Data - The results of multiple linear regression to predict outcome. Data were combined from three studies: (a) cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT, N=13), desipramine (DMI, N=49), and fluoxetine (FLU, N=37). Proportion of Variance explained by the model, given by Pearson's $r^2 = 0.09170485$.

Symptom	Value	Std. Error	t value	p
MLSleep	2.068060e-01	0.1234877	1.674709e+00	0.09746297
Mood	-1.142409e-01	0.1206277	-9.470532e-01	0.34614758
ESleep	1.026300e-01	0.1115722	9.198525e-01	0.36010875
Anxiety	8.396366e-02	0.1084657	7.741031e-01	0.44089859
Severity	8.205999e-02	0.1578884	5.197341e-01	0.60452487
Work	-3.288226e-02	0.1052959	-3.122844e-01	0.75554676
Energy	3.182421e-02	0.1050965	3.028094e-01	0.76273390
Cog	-1.524567e-02	0.1107273	-1.376866e-01	0.89079566
(Intercept)	-3.394970e-06	0.1004598	-3.379431e-05	0.99997311

Table 4.9:   The quadratic regression model with 21 parameters ($K = 21$). Data were combined from two drug studies: (a) desipramine (DMI, $N = 49$) and fluoxetine (FLU, $N = 37$). Best fitting model of size 21 selected by a backwards stepwise procedure (Statistical Sciences, 1993) from the model including all two way interactions. Proportion of Variance explained by the model, given by Pearson's $r^2 = 0.3874559$.

Symptom	Value	Std. Error	t value	p
Cog.Severity	0.4654241	0.13375693	3.4796263	0.0008249741
MLSleep	0.3309996	0.10911044	3.0336204	0.0032811594
Mood.Cog	-0.3621551	0.11982175	-3.0224490	0.0033913402
ESleep.Work	-0.2670521	0.09781181	-2.7302645	0.0078202408
Work.Anxiety	-0.3092271	0.11835542	-2.6126992	0.0107732789
ESleep.Severity	0.4036986	0.17558200	2.2992025	0.0241699457
(Intercept)	-0.2600431	0.11764378	-2.2104278	0.0300061936
ESleep	0.2006639	0.10474988	1.9156477	0.0590747738
Mood.Anxiety	-0.2122875	0.11095378	-1.9132966	0.0593796231
Anxiety.Severity	0.3176015	0.16949988	1.8737565	0.0647092028
ESleep.Anxiety	-0.2007385	0.11197744	-1.7926687	0.0769029771
Cog.ESleep	-0.2234796	0.12811221	-1.7444053	0.0850276002
ESleep.Energy	-0.1731981	0.10063794	-1.7210024	0.0892149166
MLSleep.Anxiety	-0.1866428	0.12750812	-1.4637718	0.1472748574
Severity	-0.1978865	0.14989573	-1.3201611	0.1906423332
Mood.MLSleep	0.1340615	0.10611172	1.2633998	0.2102087949
Cog.Anxiety	-0.1415459	0.11481283	-1.2328404	0.2213381323
Cog.Energy	0.1359817	0.11237262	1.2100967	0.2298962726
ESleep.MLSleep	-0.1350899	0.11977899	-1.1278264	0.2628505714
Mood.Severity	0.1218931	0.12952479	0.9410797	0.3495695121
Mood.ESleep	-0.1049684	0.11528845	-0.9104852	0.3653717773

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Relationships are Nonlinear

It is concluded that the relationships are nonlinear and the choice of the specific nonlinear model was not important in obtaining increased performance. This was demonstrated in two ways. First the
5 quadratic regression model was created , which included variables for all two-way interactions between symptoms. A backward stepwise procedure was used to obtain a model of same size as the backpropagation. The results were comparable (see Table 4.10). To rule out the possibility that the increased number of parameters was responsible
10 for all of the improved performance, we built another quadratic regression model, this time matched with the number of parameters in the linear model. Table 4.11 shows the improved results of the linear regression with the inclusion of the interaction terms, but with a model size of the original regression on symptoms alone (i.e.,
15 without terms for symptom interactions). Table 4.10 shows the proportion of variance explained by each of the models. There was a significant improvement in the performance of linear regression model, but with variables that include the nonlinearities i.e., two way the interactions between symptoms.

20

Table 4.10:   Comparison of variance explained r^2 for linear and nonlinear methods with different numbers of parameters. The number of parameters in the nonlinear model (QR) adjusted to 12 in order to match linear model. This removed the bias associated with more
25 parameters. BP = backpropagation, QR = Quadratic regression. The numbers in parenthesis represent the number of parameters in the model. For BP the numbers vary with the data set and are specified with each entry. Significance levels are given for QR 11, Table 4.6 gives the significance levels for the other models.

30

Comparison of Explained Variance (r^2)				
Data set	BP r^2	QR (21) r^2	MR (11) r^2	QR (11) r^2 (p)
DMI + FLU ($N = 86$)	.3147 (21)	.4318	.0895	.2913 (0.005)
DMI + FLU + CBT ($N = 99$)	.3156 (21)	.3875	.0917	.2736 (0.003)
DMI + FLU + TxFlag ($N = 86$)	.5601 (25)	.4232	.1395	.3199 (0.002)
DMI + FLU + CBT + TxFlag ($N = 99$)	.4389 (27)	.4062	.1389	.3095 (0.001)

Table 4.11:   The results of quadratic regression model with 11
parameters (K=11). Data were combined from two
drug studies: (a) desipramine (DMI, N=49) and fluoxetine (FLU,
N=37) and included a variable that indicated which treatment the
patient received. Best fitting model of size 11 selected by a
backwards stepwise procedure \cite{SPLUS:93} from the model including
all two way interactions. Proportion of Variance explained by the
model, given by Pearson's r^2 =0.3199294.

Symptom	Value	Std. Error	t value	p
Cog.Severity	0.3312666	0.12265150	2.700876	0.008545030
ESleep.Work	-0.2829667	0.10499048	-2.695165	0.008679468
DMI	-0.2726085	0.10260370	-2.656907	0.009630856
Anxiety.Severity	0.2325933	0.09678584	2.403175	0.018725709
Mood.Cog	-0.2574497	0.10801041	-2.383564	0.019677175
Cog.ESleep	-0.2121521	0.11052312	-1.919527	0.058721482
MLSleep	0.1912295	0.10154901	1.883125	0.063560872
Work.Anxiety	-0.2283782	0.12188894	-1.873658	0.064873109
ESleep.Severity	0.2464627	0.13517284	1.823315	0.072240277
(Intercept)	-0.1698153	0.11105281	-1.529140	0.130436621
Mood.ESleep	-0.1566263	0.11703232	-1.338317	0.184836384

Symptoms Are Weak Predicts of Response

Table 4.6 demonstrates that symptoms are significant predictors of outcome. They however are weak predictors of response because, in general, they account for less than half of the variance. A
5 preliminary analysisis reported in which symptoms, symptom combinations, or symptom interactions, seem to be the most important in terms of their contribution to predicting the response.

The input patterns (symptom profiles) for which the network predicts the best possible represent prototypical patients. The weight
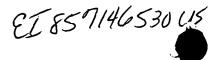10 coefficients that are important in the prediction also help refine the patient profile.

The column heading in Table 4.12 labeled Influence indicates the contribution of each symptom (input) on the outcome (response). Table 4.12 ranks the contribution in terms of the percent change in response for
15 each symptom factor. These results indicate that for the combined data (all three studies) Mood, Severity, and Middle and Late Sleep disturbance have the greatest influence in determining the outcome for the backpropagation method. For the regression method, the three most significant indicators were Cognitions and Severity combined, Middle
20 and Late Sleep, and Mood and Cognitions combined. Mood, Severity, and Middle and Late Sleep disturbance appear in the top three for both methods, which may be an indication of a stronger relationship with outcome.

25 Table 4.12   Comparison of rank of independent variables (symptoms) on outcome between two nonlinear methods, backpropagation and quadratic regression. (-) indicates predicts poor outcome. The database used was CBT+DMI+FLU (no treatment flag).

Predictors of Response			
Backpropagation		Quadratic Regression	
Symptom	Influence	Symptom(s)	p
Mood (-)	-32.925	Cog.Severity	0.0008249741
Severity	21.637	MLSleep	0.0032811594
ML Sleep	21.376	Mood.Cog (-)	0.0033913402
Energy	20.081	ESleep.Work (-)	0.0078202408
Cognitions (-)	-13.354	Work.Anxiety (-)	0.0107732789
Anxiety	8.209	ESleep.Severity	0.0241699457
E Sleep	7.275	(Intercept) (-)	0.0300061936

5

Population Best Approximated by Exponential Function

Irregularities in the data   that resulted from the limitations of
ordinal scale instruments were minimized most when the data were
10   compared after they were transformed by an exponential distribution
function.   As the ability of backpropagation to learn nonlinear
mapping relies on a sufficient number of hidden nodes and nonlinearity
of the nodes themselves, it is reasonable to examine the effect of the
transformation in the continuous-normalized case with a logistic
15   function at the output.   Table 4.13 shows the Root Mean
Square (RMS) error from worst to best   for the raw data followed by
each   of the transformations.   Note that the variances for
backpropagation were smaller than those for multiple regression. The
difference in RMS error is marginal when the transformation is good,
20   i.e. when the transformation matches the underlying distribution and
effectively linearizes the input data.

Table 4.13   Comparison of performance of multiple regression   and backpropagation
algorithms on data transformed to assume one of three probability distribution functions. Values
25   given are Root Mean Squared (RMS) Error.

Algorithm	Raw	Normal	Gamma	Exponential
Multiple regression	0.262	0.249	0.231	0.204
Backpropagation	0.241	0.215	0.203	0.198
Difference	0.021	0.034	0.028	0.006

Furthermore, backpropagation slightly outperformed multiple regression even with the best transformation method (which assumed exponential transformation as the underlying distribution). This indicates that the non-linear mapping capability of backpropagation
5 enabled it to cope with the non-standard underlying distribution which could not be remedied by any of the transformations.

Outcome-discussion

The results indicate nonlinear methods may capture more of the
10 information in the data than previously were captured by linear techniques. These preliminary results indicate that the data were nonlinear, that the nonlinear methods explained more of the variance in the data, and that it is the use of a nonlinear method that is important, not the particular nonlinear method. We also showed that
15 symptoms are significant predictors of outcome. They are weak predictors in that they only explain up to about half of the variance in the data, i.e. Table 4.10 shows 42% r^2 explained using quadratic regression, 56% using backpropagation; and Table 4.7 shows 45% to 67% explained using backpropagation with a logistic
20 function at the output node.

The results are promising to the clinical community as they indicate that the interactions among the symptoms of depression are important and that studying the interactions among symptoms may increase our understanding of depression. It is possible that depressive subtypes
25 may emerge using nonlinear analysis that may not have been detectable when the focus was on individual symptoms alone.

In addition, existing data can be reanalyzed. New methods may be able to create new knowledge from existing data sets without the additional cost of clinical trials. By using the quadratic regression method described,
30 which used multiplication of symptom severities to estimate interactions between symptoms, researchers can now reanalyze their data. This technique allows clinical researchers to use regression methods already familiar to them, which would facilitate reanalysis.

Statistically significant predictors of outcome have been found in
35 individual studies, however the results are not consistent across

studies. The nonlinear models we presented accounted for a significant proportion of variance, and so, we also, were able to reject the null hypothesis, and state that performance was better than chance. We have shown that some information is being captured by the

5   symptoms. On the other hand, there remain significant predictors of outcome yet to be discovered. Furthermore, we expect better models to result from further study. It would, of course, be better to have more data, in particular for the cognitive behavioral therapy study. Some references to methods that attempt to handle small sample sizes

10   more effectively are presented. Notwithstanding the above, the nonlinear models' fit to the data are highly significant and can, in some cases, account for more than half of the proportion of variance in these data. Any improved theoretical model would have to capture the empirical relationships captured by the backpropagation and quadratic regression

15   models.

Overall severity at baseline was not found to be a significant predictor of response using linear methods. Using quadratic regression, overall severity alone was not predictive of response, however, overall severity crossed with

20   impairment in cognitions and overall severity crossed with early insomnia both predicted favorable response to cognitive behavioral therapy, desipramine and fluoxetine.

The best individual predictor of response to treatment was middle andlate sleep disturbance. Significant interaction terms were found for

25   severity of depression crossed with severity of cognitive impairment, severity of mood crossed with severity of cognitions, severity of early sleep crossed with work inhibition, severity of anxiety crossed with work inhibition and severity of early sleep disturbance crossed with overall severity of the depressive syndrome. Bowden et al.

30   {Bowden:93} found no baseline symptoms to be predictive of outcome. Middle and late sleep disturbance have been found by others to be predictive of response to amitriptyline, imipramine and tranylcypromine, but not desipramine. There were no results reported for symptoms in Johnson et al. study of response to CBT

35   {Johnson:94}.

Further data would be needed to thoroughly substantiate the findings, but the results indicate that in CBT and DMI, the relationship between symptom severity and outcome is nonlinear. The inability of the nonlinear models to predict outcome may be a contributing factor to
5   previous accounts where symptoms and severity were not found to be significant predictors of outcome for desipramine, fluoxetine, and cognitive behavioral therapy.

Effects of Scale Normalizing Transformations
10   The results indicated that the choice of the nonlinear method, i.e., backpropagation or quadratic regression was not important. From this it was concluded that it was reasonable to use the backpropagation algorithm to select the probability distribution function. Among different transformations, the exponential transformation resulted in
15   the lowest errors overall. It is interesting that the exponential distribution gives the best result as a data transformation. The exponential transformation is the maximal entropy distribution with finite mean whose support is the entire positive half line {Rao:73}.
20   The difference between the performance of the model produced by backpropagation and that produced by the linear regression method on the transformed data is that the backpropagation can process the scale dependent nonlinearities between the independent and dependent variables, whereas the linear method cannot. The linear method relies
25   more on these data transformations than the nonlinear method and so an increase in performance is expected to be greater using the transformation and the linear technique than using the transformation (which normalizes the scale) and a method that can do this anyway. Scale dependent nonlinearities between dependent and independent
30   variables, and backpropagation can cope with nonlinearity by itself, whereas multiple linear regression relies more heavily on transformations.
Backpropagation has the ability to learn arbitrary nonlinear mappings from inputs to outputs provided that there are enough hidden units and enough data to estimate the parameters. Put into the
35   context of predicting outcome from symptoms, there is no need to

assume linear relationships between symptoms and outcome. If there are nonlinearities, backpropagation will learn to approximate them by itself (Figure 4.1), however it is harder, slower, more error-prone, and needs more data to do so. So, preprocessing to
5 normalize the scale is desirable.

Another way to cope with the inhomogeneous scale is to transform the input to make the mapping between the actual data and distribution assumption closer (Figure 4.2). For example, assume that in the population (i.e. in the ideal limit) the symptom values
10 in the underlying scale have a linear effect on the outcome, and that these values have some typical distribution such as the normal distribution. Then the nonlinearity can be thought to be caused by the non-homogeneous mapping from this ideal scale to the actual symptom scale employed. If so, the nonlinearity can be removed by
15 transforming the symptom value in a non-homogeneous manner so that the observed distribution matches the ideal distribution and in effect becomes (or appears) linear.

Outcome -samplesize
20 One drawback of nonlinear systems is that they require more data to extract explanatory rules. In situations, such as clinical research in depression, large sample sizes are difficult to achieve. As such, sample size is a limiting factor in training neural network models such as backpropagation. In this study, data from ninety-nine
25 patients (combined from three studies) were available. Because these data are inherently noisy, and because backpropagation, as a rule of thumb, typically requires about ten input-output pairs per free parameter, ninety-nine input-output pairs must be considered as a small sample size, which severely restricts the network's ability to
30 generalize. A larger sample size would be needed before the predictive capacity of baseline symptoms can be assessed using a backpropagation model.

Since the nonlinear methods necessitate larger sample sizes more data would be useful in order to further validate our model. In lieu of a
35 larger sample size, other techniques may be useful in validating the

predictive power of the nonlinear models. One next step would be to
use techniques based on resampling theory. The resampling techniques
use a stratified random sample, or resample the entire sample set (99
in this case) many times, instead of the conventional method for

5   splitting the training and test set into two disjoint sets.
Resampling techniques include the jackknife method and the bootstrap
method {Efron:82,Efron:91}. In bootstrap methods, for example,
the training and test sets are kept as one large sample. The training
set is developed by resampling the entire set, i.e. each sample is

10   replaced before another sample is taken. This method can be used to
generate goodness of fit statistics.

Choice of Predictor Variables
        Variables other than the Hamilton items may be used in the above
15   method. Other clinical data, such as pre-treatment neurotransmitter
metabolites from blood or urine, may also be used to define idealized
patient profiles and idealized or standardized patterns of recovery of a
patient receiving a specified treatment regime. Other forms of data such as
non-invasive neuroimaging information, demographic information, family
20   history, and genetic information may be used for their predictive
capacity for establishing treatment outcome predictors.

        Further, with the use of patient symptom profiles and patient
symptom profiles in response to a treatment regime, where the outcome to
25   treatment is variable based upon the currently observed patient symptoms,
other disorders may be modeled using the instant invention by providing a
database of known baseline symptoms and responses to treatment gathered
from the clinical literature and experience to the symptom profiler, training
the outcome profiler to provide idealized response patterns, and using the
30   output from the trained outcome profiler to generate recommended
treatment regimes and expected patterns of recovery for individual patients
based upon the symptoms that each exhibits and the respose to treatment
that each exhibits. Such disorders, for example, may include AIDS and
breast cancer. As with the method for the disorder described above, patient
35   symptom information may be added to the system profiler to increase the

precision of the idealized pattern generated by the symptom profiler and the outcome profiler.

The foregoing is considered only illustrative of the currently
5   preferred embodiments of the invention presented herein. Since numerous modifications and changes will occur to those skilled in the art, it is not desired to limit the invention to the exact method or application of that method used to illustrate the embodiments comprising this invention.
      What is claimed is:
10